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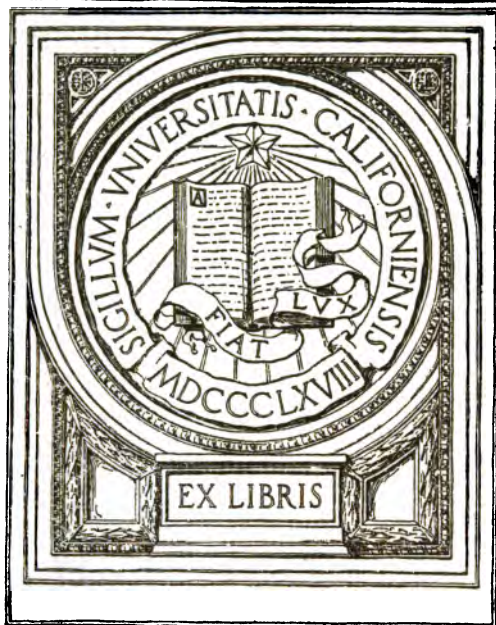
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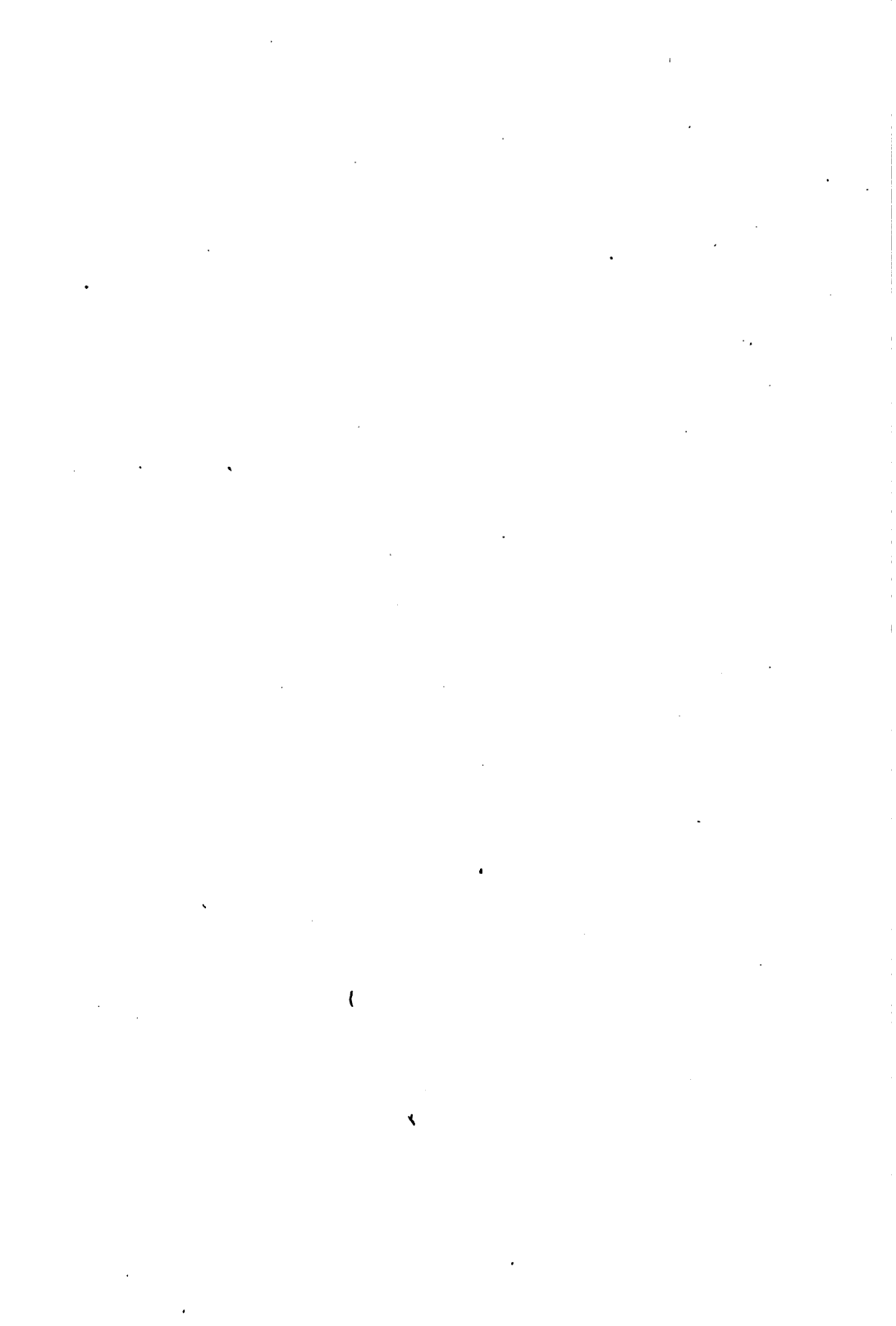
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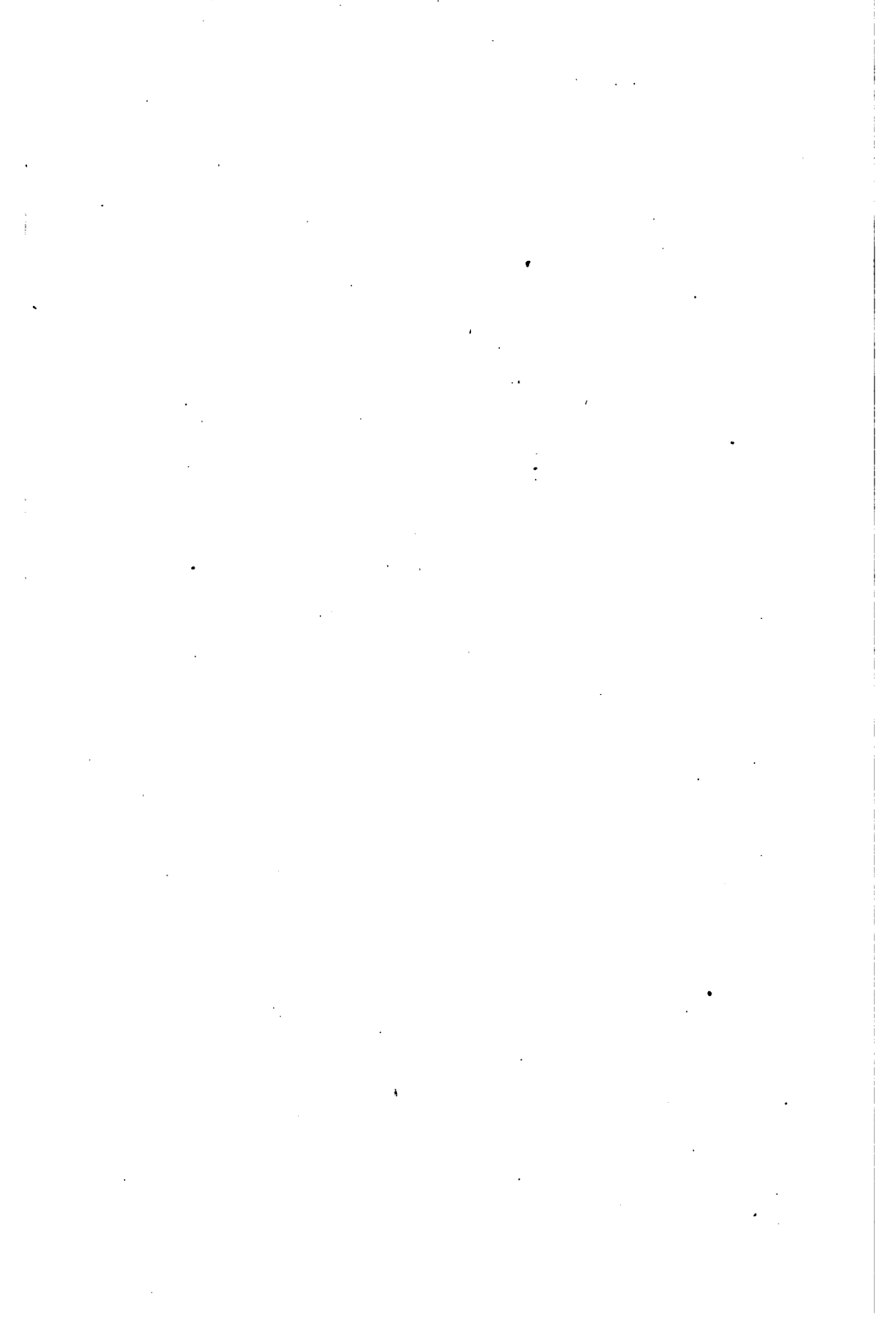
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FINAL REPORT

OF

The Educational Commission

TO

The Forty-Sixth General Assembly of the
State of Illinois.

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THE ILLINOIS EDUCATIONAL COMMISSION.

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ALFRED BAYLISS,

HARRY TAYLOR.

IRA WOODS HOWERTH, *Secretary.*

*Resigned Feb. 19, 1909.

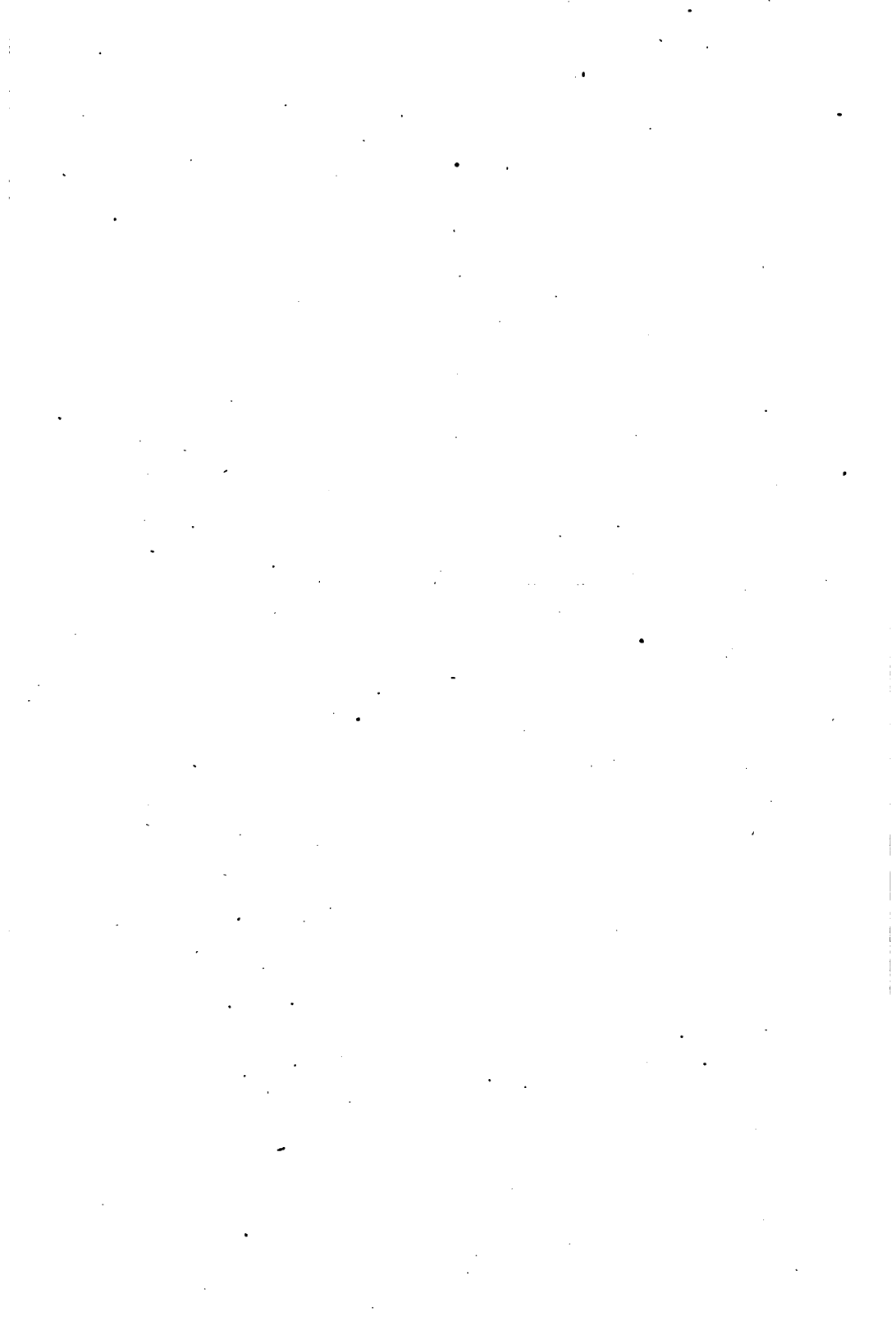


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FINAL REPORT OF THE EDUCATIONAL COMMISSION.

INTRODUCTION.

To the Honorable, the General Assembly of the State of Illinois:

The general school law under which the educational system of Illinois is now operated was enacted in 1855. Three years afterwards the Superintendent of Public Instruction wrote that "It conflicts in several parts, while other portions are so obscure by useless verbiage and language wholly unintelligible to the ordinary reader, that no little difficulty has been experienced by the local school officers throughout the State in comprehending the true meaning of the law, and ascertaining their several duties enjoined thereby."* Such was the condition of the school law in 1858. Its complexity, verbiage and difficulty of construction were increased from year to year by a succession of amendments and additional acts. Accordingly in 1872 the need of simplifying the law had become so pressing that the entire act was thoroughly revised.

From 1872 to 1889 the new body of school law grew by "external and unsystematized accretions" until its condition became practically the same as before. Consequently the Thirty-fifth General Assembly authorized another revision, which was made under the direction of the Superintendent of Public Instruction and went into effect May 21, 1889. Since that time a similar process of growth by unorganized additions of amendments to the law, and supplementary acts, has taken place, giving occasion once more for complaints on account of its obscurity, ambiguity and difficulty of interpretation.

Naturally the first normal complaint was issued from the office of the State Department of Education. In his report of 1906 the Superintendent of Public Instruction declared that the general school law "has become more or less archaic," and recommended, "the relief of the congested condition of the school laws in the form of a comprehensive revision by a competent commission, authorized by the Legislature, appointed by the Governor, and empowered and instructed to simplify the present general provisions by re-arranging them so that all dead matter shall be cut out, all ambiguous language be made clear, and, as far as possible, all provisions relating to the same subject be brought together; also, that the same commission be authorized to point out to the Legislature such useful provisions in the special laws now in force as

*Second Biennial Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1857-8, p. 12.

might well be incorporated in the general school laws, thus operating as an inducement to the holders of special privileges voluntarily to surrender them."*

This recommendation was approved by various organizations among which were the women's clubs of the State. The South Side League of Parents' Clubs of Chicago, for instance, sent out a circular letter to presidents of teachers' associations and to the educational departments of women's clubs requesting them to coöperate in interesting the people of their community in petitioning the Governor of the State "to recommend to the next Legislature the appointment of an educational commission to revise and codify the laws governing the public schools."

When the State Teachers' Association assembled in Springfield, Illinois, on December 26, 1906, the Governor of the State, Honorable Charles S. Deneen, opened the proceedings with an address in which he urged the association to adopt resolutions requesting the General Assembly to appoint a commission to codify the school law which, he said, had "become so cumbersome and contradictory in its provisions that no lawyer, not to say layman, pretends to know and understand it." He said that he had come to the conclusion that the matter should be investigated by a competent commission to be appointed by the General Assembly; that he believed that the Legislature would appoint such a commission, which should be given two years to inquire into the subject carefully and then recommend necessary changes, and that he believed the Legislature would make any necessary appropriation for carrying on such an investigation and that the people of the State would approve of the appointment of such a commission which would be able to give matured views on the subject of investigation.*

In an address delivered before the Association on the following day, the retiring Superintendent of Public Instruction, Honorable Alfred Bayliss, said, "No specific additions to our overloaded school statutes, at this time, could be as serviceable as the intelligent elimination of superfluous, incongruous, absurd and archaic portions, the simplification and orderly arrangement of the remainder, and, perhaps, the repeal of all surviving special privileges by extending those which have value to all alike. That done, a very few new provisions would suffice to take the question of more law out of this council for years to come, thereby increasing our time to consider how best to obey the letter and fulfil the spirit of the essentials."

Immediately following the address in which this statement was made the incoming Superintendent of Public Instruction, Honorable F. G. Blair, in speaking on the "Educational Outlook," expressed the following sentiments: "Now, if, as I have hinted, there is some confusion in educational thought today, if there are conflicting aims and ideals, if there is over-lapping and waste in the work of the educational system" what are some of the influences which promise to make matters better?

*Twenty-sixth Biennial Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, p. 29.

*Journal of Proceedings, Fifty-third Annual Meeting of the Illinois State Teachers' Association, Springfield, Illinois, December 26-28, 1906, p. 9.

First, one of the most hopeful and promising educational signs of the time is the announcement made by Governor Deneen that at the next session of the Legislature, it will, in all probability, provide for the appointment by the Governor, of an educational commission, whose duty it shall be to study the system of education in Illinois, and the laws under which this system operates, and to compare its form and its workings with other states and other countries, and from such study and comparison to formulate a new code of laws and to suggest such modifications of the present system as may seem wise to them. I believe that such a commission has a large opportunity, and I believe that if this opportunity is used as it may be used, great good will come to the cause of education in the State of Illinois."

When the report of the Legislative Committee appointed by the State Teachers' Association was read, it was found to include the following statement: "We recommend to the State Teachers' Association that the General Assembly be petitioned to adopt a joint resolution authorizing the appointment by the Governor of a commission to examine carefully into needed changes in our present school laws and to report to the Forty-sixth General Assembly a bill for the comprehensive revision of the same."

When on December 28th, the Committee on Resolutions presented its report, the first declaration was as follows:

"WHEREAS, The statute known as the general school law of Illinois, together with the numerous additional and supplemental acts, and so-called special charters, form a body of law which is often obscure, sometimes contradictory, and much of it, obsolete, or no longer effective; and,

WHEREAS, In many ways there is reason to believe that our plan of school organization itself may thereby be greatly improved; therefore,

Resolved, That we request the Governor of Illinois to make effective his very practical and businesslike suggestion that the Forty-fifth General Assembly be requested to authorize the appointment of a commission to visit the best schools, and study the public school system of this and other countries for the purpose of gathering and reporting to the Forty-sixth General Assembly all the data necessary for an intelligent reorganization of the entire public school system, which shall result in placing it on the plane of the best in the world for simplicity, adaptation and efficiency; and, be it further

Resolved, That we submit this unreserved indorsement of the Executive's views, as expressed to this association Wednesday evening, December 26, 1906, and this request, in lieu of any and all other recommendations or requests for new school legislation which this association might otherwise have wished to make at this time, believing that such a procedure not only is the sane, but more expeditious mode of procedure at this time."

This resolution was unanimously adopted by the association.

The necessity of an educational commission to revise and codify the school law and suggest improvements of the school system was further emphasized by the Governor of the State in his biennial message to the Forty-fifth General Assembly presented on January 9, 1907. In this message he said: "Fifty years ago our school system fairly represented the best educational thought. To this has been added a mass of ill-considered, incoherent and occasionally obscure amendments, so that the school laws of Illinois now include the General School Law containing 301 sections, thirty-seven special charters, eight supplemental

acts and twenty-one additional acts. Moreover, there are more than 400 court decisions construing these statutes. It is manifest that such a condition of our school laws, calls for a general revision of the system. We have all the parts of a complete school system fairly well developed, but there is no coherence or symmetry. Before a general revision of the school law is undertaken, however, I believe that a commission should be appointed to study other school systems, comparing ours with the best in this country and elsewhere, so that the best information may be secured as to all classes of schools, country, town, primary, intermediate, high school and normal, and to frame and submit to the next General Assembly laws to unify our school system and bring our public schools up to the highest standard of efficiency. It will not require a large appropriation to accomplish this work. I recommend such an appropriation as will enable a commission to perform the work outlined."

Accordingly a committee of the State Teachers' Association drafted the following bill to provide for an educational commission, which bill was introduced in the House by Representative Coyle and in the Senate by Senator Pemberton:

AN ACT to create an educational commission, to define its powers and duties, and to make an appropriation therefor.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the People of the State of Illinois, represented in the General Assembly:* That a commission of seven members be, and is hereby created, to be known as the Educational Commission, to be constituted and appointed as hereinafter provided.

Sec. 2. Upon the passage and approval of this Act, the Governor shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint six persons representing the various phases of educational work within the State, who, together with the Superintendent of Public Instruction, shall constitute the commission. The Superintendent of Public Instruction shall be *ex officio* chairman of the commission. All vacancies that may occur by resignation or otherwise shall be filled by the Governor.

Sec. 3. The commission shall meet at the call of the chairman and elect a secretary, and shall cause a record to be made and kept of all its proceedings. Four members shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

Sec. 4. It shall be the duty of the Educational Commission to make a thorough investigation of the common school system of Illinois, and the laws under which it is organized and operated: To make a comparative study of such other school systems as may seem advisable and to submit to the Forty-sixth General Assembly a report including such suggestions, recommendations, revisions, additions, corrections and amendments as the commission shall deem necessary.

Sec. 5. The public printer is hereby authorized and directed to do all printing necessary for the Educational Commission.

Sec. 6. The members of the commission shall receive only their actual personal and traveling expenses, to be paid upon the presentation of itemized statements of such accounts, verified by affidavits, and approved by the Governor: *Provided, however*, that the secretary may receive fair compensation for the time actually spent in the work of the commission, such compensation to be determined by the commission and approved by the Governor.

Sec. 7. The sum of \$10,000.00 is hereby appropriated for postage, stationery, clerical and expert service, incidental and traveling expenses of the commission, and the Auditor of Public Accounts is hereby authorized to draw his warrant for the foregoing amount or any part thereof, on the order of the Educational Commission, signed by its chairman, attested by its secretary, and approved by the Governor.

The Legislative Committee of the State Teachers' Association and the Legislative Committee of the County Superintendents' Association came to Springfield and assisted in securing the passage of the measure. It finally passed both houses and was approved by Governor Deneen on May 25, 1907. Upon its approval one of the ablest and best informed school men of Illinois said: "That is the best piece of school legislation that has been enacted in a quarter of a century."

The Educational Commission thus demanded and thus provided for was appointed on September 27, 1907. In its appointment the Governor sought to obtain representative men of the various educational interests and the different localities of the State. The Superintendent of Public Instruction, Honorable F. G. Blair, was made chairman of the commission by a provision in the bill creating it. Edmund J. James, President of the University of Illinois, was named as the representative of the State University and of the eastern district. Mr. R. E. Hieronymus, President of Eureka College and also the president of the State organization of non-state colleges and universities, was appointed as the representative of these institutions and of the north central portion of the State. Mr. Alfred Bayliss, Principal of the Western Illinois State Normal School, was appointed as the representative of the normal schools and of the western section of the State. Mr. Edwin G. Cooley, Superintendent of the Chicago public schools, was made the representative of city superintendents and Mr. A. F. Nightingale, County Superintendent of Cook county, of the county superintendents. These two gentlemen represented also the northern section of the State. As a representative of the southern section and also of the public high schools, Mr. Harry Taylor, Principal of the Harrisburg Township High School, was selected.

The commission, as thus constituted, met in Springfield, Illinois, on December 27, 1907, and elected Ira Woods Howerth of the University of Chicago, secretary of the commission at a salary of \$4,000.00 a year. The headquarters and office of the commission were established in the main room of the office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction in Springfield, Illinois. Twelve other meetings of the commission, each lasting from one to four days, have been held. The minutes of these meetings are on file in the office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of Illinois where they may be consulted by anyone who, for any reason, may desire to do so.

At the first meeting of the commission the work to be undertaken was thoroughly discussed. It was decided to undertake first a thorough revision, condensation, simplification and codification of the general school law. Later it was determined that through the secretary of the commission a thorough investigation of the school laws and school systems of other states should be made as a preliminary to recommendations in regard to improving the school system of Illinois, and that these investigations should be embodied in a series of bulletins.

BULLETINS OF THE COMMISSION.

One of the duties required of the commission was "to make a comparative study of such other school systems as may seem advisable." This was thought by the commission to be a necessary preliminary to the formulation of any recommendation in regard to the improvement of the school system of Illinois. The subjects taken up first made necessary a study of the school systems of the various states and an investigation of the methods of administering these systems. This study and investigation were carried on as thoroughly as the time at the disposal of the commission would permit. The results are contained in a series of bulletins issued by the commission for the purpose primarily of acquainting the people of the State with the recommendations of the commission in their tentative form and the facts and conditions upon which these recommendations were based. These bulletins are nine in number, including the preliminary report of the commission, and are entitled, respectively, and in the order of their publication, as follows: A Tentative Plan for a State Board of Education, a Tentative Plan for a County Board of Education, a Tentative Plan for the Certification of Teachers, a Tentative Plan for Making the Township the Unit of School Organization, Tentative Recommendations Concerning County Teachers Institutes, the General School Law as Revised, Simplified, Condensed and Codified, Tentative Recommendations in Regard to Minimum Salaries for Teachers, Bills Providing for a State Board of Education, the Certification of Teachers, and Township Organization of Rural Schools, with an Introductory Statement, and the Preliminary Report of the Educational Commission to the General Assembly of the State of Illinois. Of these bulletins, 69,500 copies have been printed, and distributed chiefly, of course, within the State. They have been widely quoted and commented upon outside the State, however, sometimes in part republished, and have been demanded in quantities in at least a dozen of the states for the purpose of influencing legislation.

Bulletin No. 1 contains the tentative plan of the commission to provide for the creation of a State Board of Education, the number of members, method of appointment, and term of office, with the powers and duties that should be prescribed for it, and an exposition of the facts regarding the thirty-three state boards of education now in existence, from the study of which facts the plan of the commission was formulated. This tentative plan was based upon the careful consideration of the educational needs of Illinois and upon the thorough examination of the composition, powers and duties of the various state boards of education and the educational advantages which have been derived from the operation of the boards in the various states.

Bulletin No. 2 contains the results of a study of county boards of education in the twenty-nine states which have adopted some form of an educational county board. It includes also a tentative recommendation for the creation of such a board in Illinois. Following the study of county boards will be found the results of an investigation of the county superintendency in the thirty-nine states and two territories which have

provided for county school supervision and tentative recommendations in regard to the qualifications, salaries and methods of electing county superintendents with a suggestion in regard to the number of assistants which should be provided to assist the county superintendent in the performance of the duties of his office.

Bulletin No. 3 is devoted to the consideration of a tentative plan for the certification of teachers, which plan involves the following general propositions: First, that the power to issue, renew, suspend and revoke certificates shall be lodged in the Superintendent of Public Instruction and the county superintendent of schools; second, that examinations shall be uniform throughout the State and that the examination questions shall be prepared and the papers graded under the direction of the State Board of Education; and that the fees for examinations and renewals of certificates shall be abolished and that all expenses of such examinations shall be paid by the State. The advantages of a State uniform examination system over our present county system, and the successful experience of fifteen states in operating a state system of examinations are set forth.

Bulletin No. 4 is in the nature of a discussion of the various units of school organization, the district, the town or township and the county, with the reasons for and against the adoption of the township system. The organization for the purpose of administering the school system in the different units of organization is also described and set forth in tabular form.

Bulletin No. 5 may be described as a study of the county teachers' institutes of the United States, and especially of Illinois, with respect to their number, the times at which they are held, their duration, the various methods of securing instruction, the practice with respect to compensating teachers for attendance and the methods of supporting such institutes. The tentative recommendations of the commission, based upon this study and included in the bulletin, are with respect to organizing and conducting institutes, the employment of a director of institutes, the time of holding such meetings for the instruction and inspiration of teachers and their duration, the feasibility of arranging for joint institutes, the compulsory attendance of teachers and the support of institutes by the State.

Bulletin No. 6 is the revised, simplified, condensed and codified school law, with an introductory statement in regard to the method and results of the revision. Originally the law contained 301 sections, thirty-seven special charters, eight supplemental acts and twenty-one additional acts. In the revision the number of sections is reduced from 397 to 280. By the elimination of superfluous sections, paragraphs, sentences, phrases and words, the number of pages of the law were reduced from 118 to 68, a condensation of more than one-third.

Bulletin No. 7 is a study of the wages of teachers in Illinois and the other states of the Union, of the minimum salary legislation in the eight states which have adopted such legislation, and in foreign countries, with the recommendations of the commission in regard to the length

of the school term, the minimum salaries which should be paid to teachers and a discussion of the advantages of and the objections to minimum salary legislation.

In Bulletin No. 8 may be found in full the following bills: A bill to provide for a State Board of Education and to define its powers and duties, a bill to provide for the certification of teachers and a bill for an act to enable the districts of any township in the State, no one of which districts shall contain an incorporated village or city, to vest the control and management of their schools in a single board of directors.

Bulletin No. 9 is the preliminary report of the commission to the Forty-sixth General Assembly of the State of Illinois. It includes a brief description of the work of the commission, a statement with respect to each of its final recommendations, including the recommendations themselves with some of the reasons why they have been proposed.

The publication by the commission, in this series of bulletins, of its tentative recommendations has not only kept the people of the State informed with respect to the work of the commission, but has also called forth both friendly suggestions and adverse criticisms which have enabled it to improve these recommendations before presentation in their final form, and these were the main objects of publishing such bulletins.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMISSION.

The commission is required by law to submit to your honorable body "a report including such suggestions, recommendations, revisions, additions, corrections and amendments as the commission shall deem necessary." In formulating the recommendations to be presented the commission has had under consideration, first, the school law, and second, the school system.

REVISION OF THE SCHOOL LAW.

The school law under which the educational system of Illinois is operated has grown largely by accretion and is consequently incoherent and in many respects defective and cumbersome. It has been so declared again and again by those who have been required to administer it. It is often obscure, sometimes ambiguous, sometimes contradictory. Some sections are exact duplicates of other sections, some are inoperative, some have been repealed by subsequent legislation, but still encumber the pages of the statutes. The whole body of the school law has consequently long needed revision and codification, and such revision and codification was one of the duties required of the commission.

In the performance of this duty the commission has devoted much time and the most careful attention. How much time and attention have been given to this part of the work of the commission will not be realized unless it is remembered that every sentence and phrase of the law have undergone a critical examination. The commission has endeavored by every legitimate method of simplification and condensation to produce a code logically and conveniently arranged, simple in expression and lucid in meaning, a code which school officers and the people generally may without difficulty read and understand. The result of its labors will be found in Bulletin No. 6 as the draft of "a bill for an Act to establish and maintain a system of free schools."

This bill includes the entire "Act to establish and maintain a system of free schools," approved May 21, 1889, and known as the general school law, also twenty additional acts and amendments, the whole originally containing 397 sections.

In the revision all sections which consist merely of a restatement of some part of the Constitution of the State or of the general statutes have been omitted, also all sections that were merely duplicates in expression or meaning of other sections, all sections that have been repealed directly

by subsequent legislation, all sections that have become obsolete or wholly inoperative, and all sections plainly inconsistent with other sections more recently enacted. By thus eliminating useless sections, and by combining sections which logically belong together, the commission was able to drop out of the law 117 sections without the least change of its meaning. By striking out superfluous words, phrases and sentences, of which there were many, the bulk of the law was further reduced. With all the changes incident to the revision, however, no alteration was made in the purport of the law. The bill contains no new matter. It is simply a restatement of the existing law. It will hardly be denied that as such it is far superior to the form in which the school law is now expressed. The commission, therefore, respectfully recommends the substitution of the revised, simplified, condensed and codified form of the law as contained in Bulletin No. 6, and later introduced in the General Assembly as Senate Bill No. 96, for the general school laws as they now exist.

AMENDMENTS.

The most important recommendations of the commission, as implied by suggested amendments to the revised general school law, are the following:

1. To provide a uniform system of bookkeeping by the township treasurers of the State, and to secure promptness in the inspection and auditing of their accounts.
2. That the minimum length of the school term be extended from six months to seven months.
3. That the school month shall consist of four weeks of five days each instead of the calendar month.
4. That no person be employed to teach in the public schools of the State who is not at least eighteen years of age.
5. That no person be employed to teach who does not hold, at the time of his employment, a certificate of qualifications covering the entire time for which he is employed.
6. That every teacher must keep, in addition to the daily register, a classification register which shall exhibit the name, age and attendance of each pupil, the day of the week, the month and the year and shall show the exact standing in the course of study of each pupil.
7. That a board of education in cities containing a population of less than 100,000 inhabitants may dismiss a teacher only for cause, upon written charges, and after a hearing before the board of education.
8. That boards of education may employ a superintendent for periods of four years, instead of one year, after a probationary period of two years.
9. That boards of education in school districts having a population of not fewer than 1,000 and not more than 100,000 inhabitants, and not governed by special charters, shall be limited to a president and six members.
10. That boards of education in cities having a population of more than 10,000 inhabitants shall be authorized to purchase or locate a school house site, or to purchase, build or move a school house without authorization by a majority vote of the district.
11. That boards of school directors be authorized to apportion funds for the purchase of libraries and apparatus when they are needed, and not be limited as they now are to such purchase "after provision has been made for the payment of all necessary school expenses."
12. That the actual traveling expenses of county superintendents incurred in the supervision of schools be paid by the county board.

13. That the law be so amended as to provide unequivocally for free high school privileges to pupils residing in a district in which no high school has been established.

14. That the phrase "until otherwise provided by law" be stricken from the section of the law providing for a two mill tax upon the equalized assessed value of all the property of the State for school purposes so that the two mill tax levied for such purposes from 1855 to 1873 be restored, thus increasing the State appropriation for schools from \$1,000,000 to approximately \$2,500,000.

Some of the amendments to the law are made necessary of course by the larger recommendations of the commission which involve material changes either in the organization or the administration of the school system. These larger amendments are embodied in the following bills drafted by the commission and introduced in the General Assembly:

1. A bill to provide for the creation of a State Board of Education and to define its powers and duties.

2. A bill to provide for a uniform system of examining applicants for teachers' certificates.

3. A bill to enable the districts of any township in the State, no one of which districts shall contain an incorporated village or city, to vest the control and management of their schools in a single board of directors.

4. A bill to provide for an increase in the salaries of county superintendents.

5. A bill to provide for organizing and conducting county teachers' institutes.

All of these recommendations were presented in the preliminary report of the commission.

SPECIAL CHARTERS.

The commission respectfully recommends that the general school law be so improved by amendment that an inducement will be offered to cities operating their schools under special charters to surrender the same and organize under the provisions of the general school law. The reasons for this may here be briefly set forth.

At the time of the adoption of the Constitution of 1870, which prohibited further special legislation relating to the management of common schools, there were seventy-three school districts existing by virtue of special charters. This number does not include the district of the Princeton Township High School which was also created by a special act.

Since that time the special charters of thirty-eight of these districts have been abrogated, thus bringing the schools of the following districts, most of which contain cities, under the operation of the general law: Abingdon, Augusta, Aurora, Bardolph, Bourbon, Bushnell, Caledonia, Carthage, Centralia, Chicago, Danville, Davis, Elgin, Evanston, Fairbury, Freeport, Glencoe, Harriestown, Henry, Illiopolis, LaSalle, Lee Center, Lincoln, Lockport, Marion, Mason, Monmouth, Naperville, Olney, Oneida, Ottawa, Pittsfield, Quincy, Urbana, Vandalia, Waterloo, Winnetka, Wilmington.

There are still in existence, however, thirty-five special charter districts. The schools of these districts are operated under different kinds of special charters together with supplemental acts which, though general in form, are special in application. These charters and acts greatly increase the bulk of the school law. Indeed, they constitute a body of legislation greater than the general school law itself. Of course a special charter with its supplementary acts is of interest only to the people immediately concerned. But the entire body of this legislation must be printed and generally distributed although it is not of general interest. Each year something is added, thus increasing the complexity of the law, its volume and the cost of legislation.

The charters of the thirty-five districts now operating under special Acts are in many of their provisions practically the same. In other respects they are as different as the educational ideas and wishes of those who procured them. They are necessarily imperfect and are becoming from year to year, owing to the additional legislation made necessary by them, more and more difficult to construe. They consequently give rise to more vexatious legal questions than all of the 11,785 other school districts put together. This is largely due to the fact that these charters themselves are special acts and consequently must receive a strict construction. No powers may be exercised by the boards of a special charter district, except those which are expressly conferred in the charter and supplementary acts, and those which by clear implication are necessary to carry into effect the powers definitely conferred. This is contrary to the opinion of some who favor the preservation of a special charter with the idea that it confers powers additional to those of the general law. The opposite, however, is true. The Board of Education of a district operating under a special charter has only such powers as are expressly granted.

Now, it is highly desirable, in order to secure greater uniformity in school organization and administration, to simplify the school law of the State and to diminish the cost and trouble of special legislation, that all these special charters be surrendered and the schools of all special districts be organized and operated under the general law. There is every reason why this should be done. If the charter of a special district is better than the general law, then that district enjoys certain desirable privileges which are withheld from other districts of the State. There can be no good reason why this should be the case. The powers and privileges exercised under the best special charters should be conferred upon all districts alike. If this were done special charters would probably be relinquished without additional legislation. There would be no particular object in retaining them. For this reason the general law should incorporate the advantages now enjoyed by special charter districts.

The chief advantages enjoyed by these districts are two; namely, smaller boards of education in most cases, and the power to select sites for school buildings, and to erect such buildings, without a vote of the people. If these two powers were incorporated in the general law there would be little excuse for the continued existence of some of the special

charters. They would fall away by their own weight and at least some of the special charter districts would voluntarily organize under the general law.

That these advantages may be incorporated in the general law, the commission recommends that section 123 of an act to establish and maintain a system of free schools, approved and in force June 12, 1909, be amended to read as follows:

Section 123. In all school districts having a population of not fewer than 1,000 and not more than 100,000 inhabitants, and not governed by special Acts, and in such other districts as may hereafter be ascertained by any special or general census to have such population, there shall be elected a board of education to consist of a president and six members. When such board of education is the successor of the school directors, all rights of property, and all rights regarding causes of action existing or vested in such directors, shall vest in it as fully and completely as they were vested in the school directors.

This amendment would limit the number of members of boards of education in cities of fewer than 100,000 inhabitants to seven, as well as eliminate from the law an ambiguous statement in regard to the increase of such members. It would be in accord, too, with the best educational thought. The tendency today is toward smaller boards of administration. They are more easily brought together, they are more informal in their methods of discussion, and in general more effective.

To bring the second advantage within the general school law the commission recommends that section 127 of an act to establish and maintain a system of free schools, approved and in force June 12, 1909, be amended so as to give to all boards of education in districts having more than 10,000 inhabitants the power to purchase or lease sites for school houses and to erect school buildings without the necessity of petition or an election. The boards of almost if not quite all special charter districts exercise this power. Twenty-three of these districts have a population of less than 10,000. The amendment here proposed will not reach these districts, but in the case of those having a population of more than 10,000 it will remove one great obstacle in the way of organizing under the general school law. It is reasonably certain from the manner in which this power has been exercised by boards of education upon which it has been specially granted, that it may safely be conferred upon all. With this amendment and others elsewhere suggested by the commission section 127 would read as follows:

Section 127. The board of education shall have all the powers of school directors, be subject to the same limitations, and in addition thereto they shall have power, and it shall be their duty:

1. To establish and maintain free schools for not less than seven nor more than ten months in each year.
2. To erect, hire or purchase buildings suitable for school purposes, and keep the same in repair.
3. To buy or lease sites for school houses, with the necessary grounds.
4. To furnish schools with the necessary fixtures, furniture, apparatus, libraries and fuel.
5. To divide the district into sub-districts, to create new ones, and to alter or consolidate them.

6. To establish different grades, and assign pupils to the several schools.
7. To appoint a secretary who shall keep a faithful record of all their proceedings.
8. To employ a competent superintendent who may, after two years of service, be employed for periods of four years.
9. To dismiss any teacher for cause, upon written charges, after a hearing before the said board of education.
10. To levy a tax to extend schools beyond a period of ten months, in each year, upon a petition of a majority of the voters of the district.
11. To request the trustees of schools, in writing, to convey any real estate or interest therein used for school purposes, or held in trust for schools.
12. To prepare and publish annually in some newspaper, or in pamphlet form, a report including the school attendance in the year preceding, the program of studies, the number of persons between the ages of twelve and twenty-one unable to read and write, and a statement of the receipts and expenditures, with the balance on hand.

THE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

With one exception every state and territory in the Union has an executive school officer who is at the head of the state or territorial school system. Delaware should perhaps be recorded as the exception since in that state the Auditor acts as secretary of the State Board of Education. Between 1875 and 1886 it had a superintendent of free schools.

The legal title of this state school executive varies widely. More than a dozen different names are employed. In twenty-two states it is "The Superintendent of Public Instruction;" in ten, "The State Superintendent of Public Instruction;" in three, "The Secretary of the State Board of Education;" in two, "The State Superintendent of Public Schools;" and in two, "The Superintendent of Education." Other titles employed are, superintendent of public education, state superintendent of education, state superintendent of public education, state superintendent of free schools, commissioner of education, state school commissioner, commissioner of public schools and state commissioner of common schools.

The first state to provide an executive ^{head} ~~board~~ of her school system was New York. In 1812 provision was made by legislation for the appointment of a superintendent of common schools and on January 14, 1813, Gideon Hawley was elected to that office. He served until February 22, 1821. On April 3rd of that year, the office was abolished and its duties attached to those of the Secretary of State. In 1854, the office of Superintendent of Public Instruction was created, since which time New York has had separate school supervision. In 1904, the title was changed to commissioner of education.

Maryland followed the example of New York and in 1825 created the office of state superintendent. In 1827, however, it was abolished, and it does not seem to have been revived until 1864.

The next state to provide for general school supervision was Vermont. A law of that state enacted in 1827 required the Secretary of State to collect school statistics from the various towns. In 1845, the office of State Superintendent of Common Schools was created. In 1851, the General Assembly refused to choose a superintendent but the office was revived under the new law passed in 1856.

One by one other states instituted general school supervision by a personal executive. Pennsylvania in 1835, Michigan in 1836, Massachusetts, Kentucky and Ohio in 1837, and Connecticut in 1839, provided in

greater or lesser degree some form of state supervision of schools through a state officer—either the Secretary of State, a Superintendent of Schools or a Secretary of the State Board of Education. As a rule, however, the office has not been continuous. State supervision, like other desirable features of our present state educational systems, won its way only by slow demonstrations of its peculiar advantages.

QUALIFICATIONS.

Only six of the states provide a standard of qualifications for their chief office of educational administration. In Virginia the superintendent of public instruction must be "an experienced educator," in Tennessee he must be "a person of literary and scientific attainments, and of skill and experience in the art of teaching," and in West Virginia he must be "a person of good moral character, of temperate habits, of literary acquirements and skill and experience in the art of teaching." Three of the states have a somewhat higher standard. The school law of Montana provides that the superintendent of public instruction "shall have attained the age of thirty years at the time of his election and shall have resided within the state two years next preceding his election, and be the holder of a state certificate of the highest grade, issued in some state, or a graduate of some reputable university, college or normal school." An equally high standard is provided by the law of Wisconsin which declares that "no person shall be eligible to the office of state superintendent of public instruction, who shall not, at the time of his election thereto, have taught or supervised teaching in the state of Wisconsin, for a period of not less than five years, and who shall not, at such time, hold the highest grade of certificate which the state superintendent is by law empowered to issue." So, also, Utah requires her superintendent of public instruction to be a qualified elector, a resident citizen of the state for five years next preceding his election, to have attained the age of thirty years and to be the holder of a state certificate of the highest grade issued in some state, or a graduate of some reputable university, college or normal school." Two of the states, namely, North Dakota and Oklahoma, while they require no educational qualifications of their state superintendents, make certain unusual requirements. In North Dakota the superintendent of public instruction must have attained the age of twenty-five years, be a citizen of the United States and have the qualifications of state electors. In Oklahoma only "a male citizen of the United States of the age of not less than thirty years, and who shall have been three years next preceding his election a qualified elector" of the state is eligible to the office of superintendent of public instruction. This specific limitation of the office to male citizens is unique. In Colorado and Idaho, women are now incumbents of the office.

ELECTION.

The usual method of electing the chief school officer is by popular election. This is the practice in thirty-three of the states. In seven of the states and the two territories he is appointed by the Governor.

In Connecticut, Massachusetts and Rhode Island he is elected by the state board of education and in New York by the state board of regents. In Vermont he is elected by the General Assembly and in Delaware, as already pointed out, the state auditor is *ex officio* the secretary of the state board of education.

The election by the people, as well as that of election by the General Assembly, is open to the objection that political affiliations and political expediency rather than merit determine the selection of a candidate for the office of superintendent of public instruction. It does not always happen that the man best qualified for the duties of the position belongs to the dominant party. Yet a political party is not likely to select a candidate outside its ranks. Again, the state superintendency is to the politicians, perhaps, the least important of the state offices. The nomination of a state superintendent is usually left to the closing hours of a more or less turbulent political convention. Political "trades" have, perhaps, been entered into involving the office. The demands of congressional districts not represented on the ticket have become more urgent and insistent. Availability rather than ability is the consideration. It therefore often happens that, to say the very least, the best qualified person for the office is not selected, and when this is the case it is difficult to arouse and to crystallize popular indignation. It seems to be a rule that the more remote an office is from the immediate material interests of the people the more difficult it is to prevent the election of an unsatisfactory candidate. Election of the superintendent by the people is well established, the results have been fairly satisfactory, and a proposal to change the method from election to appointment would probably meet the determined opposition of the people.

The appointment of the school executive by the Governor or by a state board has worked well in those states in which this method of electing this officer has been practiced. If political considerations have not always been left out of account they have in many cases been plainly ignored. In Pennsylvania, for instance, in which state the superintendent of public instruction is appointed by the Governor, with the advice and consent of two-thirds of all the members of the Senate, there has been no strictly political appointment to the office of superintendent of public instruction during the last generation. The present incumbent has held the position for sixteen years.

A bi-partisan, or non-political board, as an appointive body, is still further removed from political bias and influence than the Governor, and the danger of appointment as a reward for party services is consequently still more remote. Horace Mann owed his appointment to the secretaryship of the Massachusetts state board of education, and his long continuance in office not to his political services but to his interest in education and his efficiency as an educator.

TERM.

The term of office of the heads of the school systems of the various states range from one year in Delaware, Massachusetts and Rhode Island to five years in New Jersey, "during good behavior" in Connec-

tient, and "during the pleasure of the board of regents" in New York. In nineteen of the states the term is two years, in three of the states three years and in nineteen of the states four years. The tendency is towards a longer term. A short term is not necessarily inconsistent with long continuance in office. The term in Pennsylvania is only four years, but the present incumbent is now serving his fifth term. In Massachusetts, the secretary of the state board of education is elected each year but the average term of service since the creation of the office has been about ten years. So, also, in Connecticut, although the nominal term is one year the state has had the same secretary since 1883.

SALARY.

The average salary attached to the highest school office of the various states is \$2,939.58. The highest salaries are paid by Illinois and New York. In New York the law provides that the commissioner of education shall receive an annual salary of \$7,500.00 and \$1,500.00 for traveling and other expenses. In Illinois the salary is \$7,500.00. All necessary traveling expenses and contingent expenses for books, postage and stationery pertaining to his office are also allowed.

THE STATE SUPERINTENDENCY IN ILLINOIS.

In Illinois a faint beginning of State school supervision manifested itself in 1837. By an Act approved March 4th of that year trustees of schools were required to make annual reports to county school commissioners who in turn were required to transmit abstracts of these reports to the Auditor of Public Accounts to be by him laid before the General Assembly. Under this provision a report was made by the Auditor to the General Assembly on January 7, 1839, showing the condition of the schools for the year 1837. During the next half dozen years the appointment of a State Superintendent was urged in memorials and resolutions by educational conventions, by the educational press and in the State Legislature. In 1841, the Illinois Education Society, organized in that year, urged upon the Legislature the appointment of a State School Superintendent. In 1843 another effort was made to secure State supervision. Petitions were circulated but there was much opposition on the ground of the expense involved in the creation of the new State office. On December 3, 1844, the Governor of the State, in a message to the General Assembly, declared that but little statistics or other information of the actual operation of existing laws on the subject of common school education had yet been collected to enable the General Assembly to legislate upon it with enlightened judgment, and recommended the appointment by the General Assembly of an agent who should travel over the State and collect the desired information. A committee, appointed by the State School Convention to draw up a memorial on the subject of common school education, expressed the need of an executive head of the school system in the following language: "We need a central power like the heart to the human system, to keep the works in motion; and to have a regular communication established

by intermediate agents between the heart and the extremities—between superintendent and people; an arterial circulation to supply instructions and advice to under officers, teachers, and parents, and veins to convey information of successes and failures, and of required improvements, to the superintendent. Here has been a prime; and a sufficient cause of failure, in the operation of our school laws. Suitable provisions have not been made to procure statistics and information of various kinds to lay before the Legislature, and without which enlightened legislation could not be expected; and our legislators have calculated too much upon the influence of private, individual advantages in having good schools, and have not attended to awakening an interest in regions, and in particular cases, where education was not justly appreciated, and to enforcing the laws where they were neglected.”*

Among the reasons presented for creating the office of State Superintendent of Public Instruction were the following:

1. That the State should have an authorized agent, as in other public appropriations, to see that its money is rightly applied, and made useful in the highest degree.
2. That the usefulness of the township funds would be greatly increased.
3. That the Legislature may be supplied with reliable information concerning the operation of the law, the condition of schools, throughout the State, the plans and wishes of the people, and the improvements made elsewhere; all of which is necessary to enlightened and permanent legislation.
4. The advantage of an agent to operate in particular regions, where the greatest apathy prevails.
5. The necessity of enlisting a more general interest in common schools; the surest and best method of doing such, is to send a man of the right character, through the length and breadth of the State.

The opposition which then existed to the creation of the office may be inferred from the appeal of the committee to those who were opposed to their recommendation. “Several differ from us,” it declared, “who have shown by former efforts, their sincere desire to promote this great cause. But we would ask of them as a particular, as a great favor, to waive their objections and yield their own plans, giving this their cordial support, even if they think some other measure less expensive might be devised. Till now we have not had the office, and all acknowledge the necessity of working a change;—let our plan be tried for a year or two and watch the consequences. If found not to answer the purpose, the law can be repealed at the next session, and the experiment will not be very costly. Please not only withhold opposition, but give us your hearty support.”

The result of this wide and continued agitation was the passage of an act making the Secretary of State *ex officio* superintendent of common schools. In December, 1846, an educational convention, held in Springfield, appointed a committee instructed to memorialize the Legislature for an amendment to the school law making the superintendency of public instruction a separate office to be filled by the Legislature. Another convention which met at the same place in 1849 drew up a memorial containing the same request. Nothing came of these efforts

*The Memorial of a Committee of the State School Convention held at Peoria in October, 1844 upon the subject of Common School Education, p. 103, printed as a Senate Document.

until 1854 at which time the office of superintendent of public instruction was created and Ninian W. Edwards was appointed by Governor Joel A. Matteson as the first incumbent. He remained in office until January 12, 1857. The following table shows the names of the superintendents of Illinois, the political party to which each belonged, the date of their commission or qualification and the county from which they were elected.

Name.	Date of commission or qualification.	From what county.	Remarks.
Ninian W. Edwards, Dem.....	Mar. 24, 1854	Sangamon.....	Appointed by Governor.....
Wm. H. Powell, Rep.....	Jan. 12, 1857	Peoria.....	
Newton Bateman, Rep.....	Aug. 1, 1859	Morgan.....	
Newton Bateman, Rep.....	Jan. 4, 1861	do.....	
John P. Brooks, Dem.....	Jan. 12, 1863	Sangamon.....	
Newton Bateman, Rep.....	Jan. 10, 1865	do.....	
Newton Bateman, Rep.....	Jan. 10, 1867	do.....	
Newton Bateman, Rep.....	Nov. 8, 1870	do.....	Term extended to four years...
Sam'l M. Etter, Dem.....	Jan. 11, 1875	McLean.....	
James P. Slade, Rep.....	Jan. 13, 1879	St. Clair.....	
Henry Raab, Dem.....	Jan. 5, 1883	do.....	
Richard Edwards, Rep.....	Jan. 6, 1887	Bureau.....	
Henry Raab, Dem.....	Jan. 12, 1891	St. Clair.....	
Samuel Inglis, Rep.....	Jan. 14, 1895	Jackson.....	Died, June 23, 1898.....
Jos. H. Freeman, Rep.....	June 23, 1898	Kane.....	By appointment, vice Inglis, deceased.....
Alfred Bayliss, Rep.....	Jan. 11, 1899	LaSalle.....	
Alfred Bayliss, Rep.....	Jan. 12, 1903	do.....	
Francis G. Blair, Rep.....	Jan. 10, 1907	Coles.....	

It is unnecessary to trace the development of the state superintendency in the other states of the Union. Its history in most of the older states shows that it has rarely been from the first a separate and continuous office. The usual course has been the assignment of the duty of collecting school statistics to a state officer. Later the establishment of the superintendency, then its abolishment and re-establishment. During the last half century, however, the principle of state supervision of the public schools has become definitely and permanently established.

The following table shows the title of the executive school officer in the various states and the year in which the present system of state supervision acquired some degree of permanence:

Table Showing the Title of the Chief School Officer of Each State and Territory, and the year in which the Present System Originated.

State.	Title.	Origin.
Alabama.....	Superintendent of Education, superintendent 1854-67, state comptroller <i>ex officio</i> 1867-68.....	1868.....
Arizona.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1878.....
Arkansas.....	State Superintendent of Public Instruction, state auditor <i>ex officio</i> 1836-61.....	1868.....
California.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1851.....
Colorado.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction, territorial secretary <i>ex officio</i> to 1870, territorial superintendent 1870-76.....	1876.....
Connecticut.....	Secretary of State Board of Education, secretary of commissioners 1839-42, school fund commissioner <i>ex officio</i> 1845-49; principal state normal school <i>ex officio</i> 1849-65.....	1865.....

Table Showing Title, Etc.—Concluded.

State.	Title.	Origin.
Delaware.....	Secretary State Board of Education (auditor acts <i>ex officio</i>), superintendent of free schools 1875-1886.....	1875.....
Florida.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1868.....
Georgia.....	State School Commissioner.....	1870.....
Idaho.....	State Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1890.....
Illinois.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Auditor 1837, secretary of state <i>ex officio</i> 1844-54.....	1854.....
Indiana.....	State Superintendent of Public Instruction 1835-1844; state treasurer <i>ex officio</i> superintendent of public instruction 1844-1867; state superintendent of public instruction 1867-1870; state treasurer <i>ex officio</i> superintendent of public instruction 1870-1873.....	1873.....
Iowa.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction, territorial superintendent 1841-43, secretary board 1848-64.....	1846.....
Kansas.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1861.....
Kentucky.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1837.....
Louisiana.....	State Superintendent of Public Education, secretary of state <i>ex officio</i> 1833-46, superintendent 1847-69.....	1870.....
Maine.....	State Superintendent of Public Schools.....	1854.....
Maryland.....	Superintendent of Public Education, principal state normal school <i>ex officio</i> 1868-1902, superintendent 1864-68.....	1896.....
Massachusetts.....	Secretary of State Board of Education.....	1837.....
Michigan.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1836.....
Minnesota.....	State Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1856.....
Mississippi.....	State Superintendent of Education.....	1870.....
Missouri.....	State Superintendent of Public Schools, state officers <i>ex officio</i> 1835-39, secretary of state <i>ex officio</i> 1841-51, superintendent 1853-61, secretary of state <i>ex officio</i> 1861-65.....	1865.....
Montana.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction, territorial superintendent 1872-89.....	1889.....
Nebraska.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1869.....
Nevada.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1896.....
New Hampshire.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction, commissioner 1846-50, secretary county commissioners <i>ex officio</i> 1850-67.....	1867.....
New Jersey.....	State Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1845.....
New Mexico.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1891.....
New York.....	Commissioner of Education, superintendent 1904, superintendent 1813-21, secretary of state <i>ex officio</i> 1821-54.....	1854.....
North Carolina.....	State Superintendent of Public Instruction, superintendent 1852-65.....	1870.....
North Dakota.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1889.....
Ohio.....	State Commissioner of Common Schools, superintendent 1837-40, secretary of state <i>ex officio</i> 1840-53.....	1853.....
Oklahoma.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1873.....
Oregon.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction, governor <i>ex officio</i> 1859-72.....	1873.....
Pennsylvania.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction, secretary of commonwealth <i>ex officio</i> 1835-57, superintendent of common schools 1857-73.....	1857.....
Rhode Island.....	Commissioner of Public Schools, agent 1843-45.....	1845.....
South Carolina.....	State Superintendent of Education.....	1868.....
South Dakota.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction, territorial superintendent 1869-89 for both states as one territory.....	1889.....
Tennessee.....	State Superintendent of Public Instruction, state treasurer <i>ex officio</i> 1869-72.....	1873.....
Texas.....	State Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1874.....
Utah.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1870.....
Vermont.....	Superintendent of Education, secretary of board 1856-74.....	1845.....
Virginia.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1870.....
Washington.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction, territorial superintendent 1872-89.....	1889.....
West Virginia.....	State Superintendent of Free Schools.....	1865.....
Wisconsin.....	State Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	1819.....
Wyoming.....	Superintendent of Public Instruction.....

POWERS AND DUTIES.

The powers and duties of the chief school officers of the various states differ considerably in some particulars, but in other respects are practically the same. They have been classified as statistical, advisory and judicial, supervisory and administrative.* All are required to report annually or biennially to the Governor or the Legislature. Many of them hear and determine appeals from the decision of other school officers and decide questions of school law. In several of the states the superintendent exercises general supervision over the public schools, and in certain cases over all the educational interests of the state. Frequently he apportions school moneys, grants certificates, organizes and conducts institutes and performs other administrative functions.

While in many of the states the powers and duties of the superintendent are large, in no other state are they so extended as in New York. In that state all the powers and duties of the board of regents in relation to the supervision of elementary and secondary schools, including all schools except colleges, technical and professional schools, are devolved upon the commissioner of education. He acts as an executive officer of the board of regents and is a member of the board of trustees of Cornell University. He has power to create such departments as in his judgment shall be necessary. He appoints deputies and heads of such departments, subject to the approval of the state board of regents. He apportions the state school funds, determines the conditions of admission, the courses of work and the employment of teachers, and audits all the accounts of the twelve normal schools of the state. He has unlimited authority over the examination and certification of teachers. He regulates the official action of the school commissioners in all of the assembly districts of the state. He appoints the teachers' institutes, arranges the work, names the instructors and pays the bills. He determines the boundaries of school districts. He provides schools for the defective classes and for the seven Indian reservations yet remaining in the state. He may condemn school houses and require new ones to be built. He may direct new furnishings to be provided. He may entertain appeals by any person conceiving himself aggrieved from any order or proceeding of local school officials, determine the practice therein, and make final disposition of the matter in dispute, and in his decision can not be "called in question in any court or in any other place."*

*Administration of Public Education of the United States, Dutton & Snedden, pp 69-70.

*Education in the United States, Volume 1, p. 20.

The following table shows the manner of election, term of office, the salaries and the powers and duties of each of the chief school officers of the various states and territories:

Table Showing the manner of election, term, salary, and the most important powers and duties of the chief school officer of each state and territory in the United States.

State.	Election.	Term.	Salary.	Powers and Duties.
Alabama.....	By people	4	\$3,000	1. To exercise general supervision over all educational interests of State. 2. To remove from office any officer for neglect of duty. 3. To visit annually every county. 4. To prescribe uniform system of keeping reports. 5. To provide for instructing children in hygiene and physiology with special reference to effects of alcoholic drinks. 6. To report biennially to Governor.
Arizona.....	By governor..	2	2,000	1. To superintend public schools. 2. To investigate accounts of school officers. 3. To apportion school money. 4. To prescribe uniform system of keeping records. 5. To report to Governor preceding each regular session of Legislature.
Arkansas.....	By people	2	2,500	1. To furnish examination questions to county examiner. 2. To prescribe uniform system of keeping accounts. 3. To have general supervision of school revenues. 4. To report annually to Governor. 5. To grant life certificates.
California....	By people	4	3,000	1. To apportion State school fund. 2. To have all reports and documents bound. 3. To visit State orphan asylums. 4. To call biennially convention of city and county superintendents. 5. To furnish necessary blanks to school officers. 6. To superintend the schools of the State. 7. To report biennially to Governor. 8. To visit the schools of the counties.
Colorado.....	By people	2	3,000	1. To decide all points regarding school law. 2. To prepare examination questions for county superintendents. 3. To furnish blanks and registers to school officers. 4. To have school law printed. 5. To report annually to Governor. 6. To apportion school fund.
Connecticut..	Appointed by board	1*	3,500	1. To draw orders for library money. 2. To furnish blanks and registers to private schools. 3. To inspect certificates of age. 4. To perform such other duties as the board may require.
Delaware†....				

*Practically during good behavior.

†The State Auditor acts as Secretary of the State Board of Education.

Table Showing the Manner of Election, Etc.—Continued.

State.	Election.	Term.	Salary.	Powers and Duties.
Florida	By people	4	2,500	1. To print and distribute school laws. 2. To call convention of county superintendents and other officers. 3. To hold institutes. 4. To apportion school money. 5. To hold examinations and grant certificates. 6. To visit seminaries annually. 7. To decide appeals.
Georgia	By people	2	2,000	1. To visit schools. 2. To see that school law is enforced. 3. To see that school fund is properly expended. 4. To report annually to Governor.
Idaho	By people	2	2,400	1. To prepare examination questions for county superintendents. 2. To prescribe course of study. 3. To prescribe rules and regulations for institutes. 4. To prepare and furnish blanks to officers. 5. To report biennially to Governor. 6. To prepare final eighth grade questions.
Illinois	By people	4	7,500	1. To file all reports and public documents. 2. To address circular letters to county superintendents as he shall deem for the interests of schools. 3. To be legal advisor of school officers. 4. To hear and determine controversies. 5. To grant state certificates. 6. To visit and examine charitable institutions. 7. To authorize county superintendents to procure necessary help to conduct institutes.
Indiana	By people	2	3,000	1. To have general supervision of schools. 2. To report biennially to Governor. 3. To examine auditor's books and records. 4. To supervise school funds. 5. To provide officers with necessary blanks. 6. To publish school laws.
Iowa	By electors ...	2	2,200	1. To have general supervision of county superintendents and public schools. 2. To call meetings of county superintendents, appoint institutes, approve institute faculties, visit institutes, and deliver educational addresses. 3. To hear and decide appeals from decisions of county superintendents. 4. To publish school laws and outlines on educational matters. 5. To be <i>ex officio</i> president of Educational Board of Examiners, chairman of the Board of Trustees of State Normal and member of the Board of Regents of the University, and of the Board of Trustees of the State College.
Kansas	By people	2	2,500	1. To have general supervision of the common school funds and educational interest of the state. 2. To perform such other duties as may be prescribed by law.

Table Showing the Manner of Election, Etc.—Continued.

State.	Election.	Term.	Salary.	Powers and Duties.
Kentucky.....	By people	4	2,500	1. To report biennially condition and progress of schools. 2. To give general information concerning institutions for deaf and dumb, blind and feeble-minded. 3. To prepare and furnish necessary blanks. 4. To collect, arrange and index, biennially, the school laws. 5. To publish annually general school laws of state. 6. To decide appeals.
Louisiana.....	By people....	4	2,000	1. To supervise school system of State. 2. To visit all parishes as often as practicable. 3. To keep account of all orders drawn or countersigned by him on auditor. 4. To report biennially condition and progress of schools. 5. To report to Board of Education neglect of duty or improper use of school funds. 6. To decide controversies. 7. To prescribe courses of study not otherwise provided for.
Maine	By governor..	3	2,500	1. To have general supervision of schools. 2. To obtain information regarding education throughout the world. 3. To conduct summer training schools. 4. To compile and distribute biennially 3,000 copies of amended school law. 5. To prescribe common school studies. 6. To furnish blanks to school officers. 7. To report annually to Governor. 8. To hold examinations and issue state certificates.
Maryland.....	By governor..	4	3,000	1. To inform himself and Board of Education as to condition of public schools in state. 2. To examine county school fund and report to State Board. 3. To arrange for, and conduct teachers' institutes. 4. To endorse Normal school diplomas from other states. 5. To be member of State Board of Education and its secretary and treasurer. 6. To inspect high school and manual training schools. 7. To be trustee of each State Normal school.
Massachusetts	By board	1	4,500	1. To visit schools. 2. To collect and distribute information regarding conditions of public schools and best methods of instruction. 3. To give notice of, and attend teachers' meetings. 4. To act as one of commissioners to invest and manage State school fund.
Michigan.....	By people....	2	2,000	1. To supervise normal training classes. 2. To examine and audit accounts of any district. 3. To require districts to maintain school for at least statutory period. 4. To request Governor to remove any county commissioner or school examiner for sufficient reason. 5. To report annually to Governor. 6. To appoint deputy superintendent. 7. To prepare rules and regulations for management of libraries. 8. To act as secretary of State School Board.

Table Showing the Manner of Election, Etc.—Continued.

State.	Election.	Term.	Salary.	Powers and Duties.
Minnesota....	By governor..	2	3,000	1. To meet and confer with county and city superintendents. 2. To report biennially to Governor. 3. To prepare and distribute blanks to county superintendents. 4. To provide for teachers' institutes. 5. To apportion school funds. 6. To grant and revoke certificates.
Mississippi...	By people....	4	2,500	1. To preside over and visit schools. 2. To preserve school documents. 3. To apportion school funds. 4. To report biennially to legislature. 5. To be trustee of university and colleges.
Missouri.....	By people....	4	3,000	1. To supervise school funds. 2. To require county officers to furnish copies of all records. 3. To print and distribute school laws. 4. To grant and revoke certificates. 5. To employ chief clerk. 6. To make annual report. 7. To elevate standard of instruction in public schools. 8. To inspect high schools and classify and publish lists of same. 9. To file text books submitted for adoption, and furnish lists of all books so filed.
Montana.....	By people....	4	3,000	1. To have general supervision of public schools. 2. To furnish school officers with necessary blanks. 3. To furnish county superintendent lists for school libraries. 4. To prepare county examination questions. 5. To prescribe rules and regulations for teachers' institutes. 6. To decide appeals from county superintendents. 7. To print at least once in two years the law with such notes as seem to him advisable. 8. To attend institutes. 9. To report biennially to Governor. 10. To apportion school fund.
Nebraska.....	By people....	3	2,000	1. To organize and attend institutes. 2. To visit and supervise schools. 3. To decide controversies. 4. To prescribe forms of reports. 5. To print and distribute school laws. 6. To report annually to Governor. 7. To appoint deputy superintendent. 8. To apportion school fund. 9. To organize and manage junior normal schools. 10. To prescribe rules and regulations governing certification of teachers. 11. To prescribe rules and regulations for normal training high schools.
Nevada.....	By people....	4	2,000	1. To visit schools. 2. To conduct institutes. 3. To apportion school funds. 4. To report biennially to Governor. 5. To prescribe rules and regulations for making reports, and furnish blanks for same. 6. To call meetings of Board of Education in January and July. 7. To appoint deputy superintendents.
N. Hampshire	By governor..	2	2,500	1. To prescribe forms of registers and blanks to be used in schools. 2. To supervise educational conditions in state. 3. To hold teachers' institutes.

Table Showing the Manner of Election, Etc.—Continued.

State.	Election.	Term.	Salary.	Powers and Duties.
New Jersey ..	By governor..	5	5,000	1. To employ assistant superintendent and clerks. 2. To be secretary of Board of Education. 3. To decide controversies. 4. To appoint county superintendents in case of vacancies. 5. To withhold state money for neglect of duty. 6. To apportion school funds.
New Mexico ..	By governor..	2	2,400	1. To have general supervision of public education. 2. To procure uniformity in reports. 3. To have general supervision of official records of any district. 4. To suspend county superintendents for neglect of duty. 5. To prescribe and cause to be prepared in English and Spanish all necessary forms and blanks. 6. To be secretary of Board of Education.
New York	Board of Regents.....	6	\$7,500	1. To be <i>ex officio</i> a regent of State University, a trustee of Cornell University, and of state asylum. 2. To submit annual report to Legislature. 3. To grant and revoke certificates. 4. To appoint times and places of holding examinations. 5. To remove county commissioners for neglect of duty. 6. To withhold public money from districts for not obeying law. 7. To prepare and distribute blank forms. 8. To apportion school money.
N. Carolina...	By people....	3	3,000	1. To report biennially to Governor. 2. To publish and distribute school laws annually. 3. To construe and enforce school law. 4. To hold institutes. 5. To prescribe course of study in public high schools. 6. To prescribe plans for school houses, which must be followed. 7. To act as secretary of State Board of Education.
N. Dakota	By people....	2	2,000	1. To have general supervision of schools. 2. To be <i>ex officio</i> member of board of university, normal school boards and high school boards. 3. To furnish school supplies and establish circulating libraries. 4. To issue and revoke certificates. 5. To prescribe course of study for public and normal schools. 6. To prescribe rules and regulations for teachers' institutes. 7. To advise county superintendents. 8. To keep record of official acts. 9. To cause school law to be published at least once in two years.
Ohio.....	By people....	2	2,000	1. To visit annually each judicial district. 2. To supervise school funds. 3. To prescribe rules and regulations for all reports. 4. To distribute school laws. 5. To report annually to either Governor or General Assembly. 6. To require reports from private schools.

Table Showing the Manner of Election, Etc.—Continued.

State.	Election.	Term.	Salary.	Powers and Duties.
Oklahoma....	By people....	4	2,500	1. To apportion school funds. 2. To publish school laws once in two years. 3. To visit each county once a year. 4. To report biennially to Governor. 5. To act as president of Board of Education, Board of Normal School Regents, and Regents for Deaf and Dumb school. 6. To be member of board of regents for colored A. & M. university.
Oregon.....	By people....	4	3,000	1. To visit each county annually. 2. To attend county institutes. 3. To provide uniform series of blanks. 4. To act as secretary of State Board. 5. To decide cases of appeal. 6. To hold State Teachers' Association. 7. To report biennially to General Assembly.
Pennsylvania.	By governor..	4	5,000	1. To have general supervision of public schools. 2. To appoint trustees for state normal schools. 3. To conduct examination for graduation in Normal schools. 4. To appoint State Board of Examiners. 5. To sign all orders of State Treasurer. 6. To submit annual report to Legislature.
Rhode Island.	By board	4	4,000	1. To act as secretary of Board of Education. 2. To advise with school officers. 3. To visit and inspect schools. 4. To arrange for and conduct institutes. 5. To secure uniformity of text books. 6. To apportion school funds. 7. To prepare and publish program for Arbor Day. 8. To decide appeals.
S. Carolina....	By people....	2	1,800	1. To have general supervision of schools. 2. To secure uniformity of text books. 3. To furnish school registers and blanks. 4. To report to General Assembly at each regular session.
S. Dakota.....	By people....	2	1,800	1. To meet county superintendents annually. 2. To inspect high schools. 3. To report biennially to Governor. 4. To supervise institutes. 5. To hold examinations. 6. To grant and revoke certificates.
Tennessee....	By governor..	2	2,500	1. To inspect schools. 2. To see that laws are executed. 3. To prepare and distribute blank forms. 4. To have school laws printed and distributed. 5. To appoint examiners. 6. To require annual reports from county superintendents. 7. To report biennially to Governor.
Texas.....	By people....	2	2,500	1. To hear and determine appeals. 2. To prescribe suitable blanks for reports. 3. To file all reports and documents transmitted to him. 4. To advise and counsel with school officers. 5. To address institutes and normal schools.
Utah	By people....	4	2,400	1. To apportion school money. 2. To prepare and transmit suitable blanks to school officers. 3. To visit each county once a year. 4. To report biennially to Legislature. 5. To call annually a convention of city and county superintendents.

Table Showing the Manner of Election, Etc.—Concluded.

State.	Election.	Term.	Salary.	Powers and Duties.
Vermont.....	By G. Ass'm'y	2	2,000	1. To hold institutes and summer schools. 2. To report to General Assembly. 3. To issue and distribute circulars among school officers. 4. To fix standard of examination.
Virginia	By people....	4	3,500	1. To see that school laws are faithfully executed. 2. To prepare suitable blanks for school officers. 3. To inspect schools. 4. To decide appeals. 5. To report annually to Board of Education. 6. To apportion school funds.
Washington..	By people....	4	3,000	1. To report biennially to Governor. 2. To prepare and distribute blanks. 3. To visit various counties. 4. To submit monthly statements to auditor for traveling expenses. 5. To cause school laws to be printed and distributed. 6. To act as <i>ex officio</i> president of Board of Education. 7. To hold annual county superintendents' convention. 8. To decide points of law submitted to him.
W. Virginia ..	By people....	4	3,000	1. To apportion school fund. 2. To secure uniform system of reports. 3. To correspond with educators and school officers abroad, and acquaint himself with the various systems of schools. 4. To report annually to Governor. 5. To issue certificates. 6. To have charge of all county institutes and to appoint instructors.
Wisconsin....	By people....	4	5,000	1. To stimulate interest in education. 2. To prepare list of books for school libraries. 3. To attend educational meetings. 4. To secure uniformity of reports. 5. To decide appeals. 6. To apportion school funds. 7. To report biennially to Governor. 8. To supervise institutes. 9. To grant and revoke certificates. 10. To be <i>ex officio</i> member of Board of University Regents and Board of Normal Regents and president of Mining School Board.
Wyoming	By people....	4	2,000	1. To file all public documents each year separately. 2. To prepare suitable forms for reports and distribute to officers. 3. To make rules and regulations to carry law into effect. 4. To distribute school fund. 5. To issue certificates. 6. To act as secretary of Board of Charities and Reform.

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THE STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

The tendency toward the completion of State educational systems by the creation of State boards of education seems to be general. Thirty-three of the forty-eight states and territories already have such a board or its equivalent. Of the six states which recently appointed educational commissions to recommend reforms in their school systems, three, namely, Kansas, Kentucky and Washington, already have state boards of education. The commissions of the other three states, namely, Pennsylvania, Iowa and Illinois* recommend the creation of such boards.

The first state to establish an educational board with state functions was New York. In 1784 the board known as the regents of the university of the state of New York was created and vested with the power, in addition to its control of Columbia College, "to found schools and colleges in any part of the state." The next state to establish anything like a state board of education was North Carolina. In 1825, a fund having been created for the establishment and support of schools, the governor, the chief justice of the supreme court, the speakers of the Senate and House of Commons, and the treasurer of the state, were constituted a board to be known as the president and directors of the literary fund, for the promotion of learning and the instruction of youth. Ten years afterward Missouri constituted the governor, the auditor, the treasurer and the attorney general a state board of education, and this seems to be the first use of the name.

The name applied to the state boards at the head of the state educational systems varies. In twenty-five states and territories it is called "State Board (or Territorial Board) of Education." In Colorado, Massachusetts, Mississippi and Missouri, it is called simply board of education. In Louisiana the corporate name is "Board of Education for the state of Louisiana," in New York it is "Board of Regents of the University of the state of New York," in Idaho it is "Board of Public Instruction."

Some of the states having a board of education have also another educational board with state functions, some of them more than one. New Jersey, Texas and Virginia, for instance, have each a "State Board of Examiners." Alabama, Montana and Oregon have each a

*The Board of Education of the State of Illinois should not be mistaken for a State Board of Education. It is merely the board of trustees of one of the five State normal schools.

"State Text Book Commission," Washington has a "Board of Higher Education," Missouri a "State Library Board," and Utah, in addition to her state board of education, a legally constituted State School Committee to Formulate a State Course of Study. Most of the states which have no state board of education have some kind of a board with limited state educational functions. Iowa, Ohio, Wisconsin and Wyoming have state boards of examiners. Minnesota and North Dakota have state high school boards, Nebraska a board of educational lands and funds, South Dakota a board of school and public lands and also a state board of regents of education which has control of the educational institutions which are sustained wholly or in part by the state. Vermont has a state board of library commissioners, and also a board of normal school commissioners which has supervision of the normal schools of the state. Pennsylvania has thirteen examining boards for the thirteen normal schools of the state, but these should hardly be included among state educational boards.

Excluding Pennsylvania, forty-two states and territories have some form of educational board with state functions. The only states besides Pennsylvania that are wholly without such an educational agency are Alabama, Arkansas, Illinois, Maine and New Hampshire.

In most cases, however, there is a preponderance of educators in the membership of the boards having the most extensive powers and duties. There are three women on the board of Massachusetts. In some of the states attention is paid to the element of locality in the selection of members. In New Jersey, Louisiana and West Virginia, each congressional district must be represented. In Rhode Island there must be two members from Providence county and one from each of the other counties. In three states at least the board must be bi-partisan. The law of New Jersey provides that the board "shall consist of two members from each congressional district, who shall not be members of the same political party and who shall not reside in the same county except where a congressional district shall lie wholly within one county." Of the six members appointed by the governor of Maryland two "shall be from the political party which at the last preceding election for governor received next to the highest number of votes," and in West Virginia not more than three of the five members appointed may be from the same political party. It may be recalled in this connection that the criteria followed in selecting the members of the first Massachusetts board were religious, political and professional. The element of locality was also considered, but it was regarded as of minor importance.

TERM OF OFFICE.

The terms of office of the members of the different boards are as various as the number of members. In Kentucky and Washington members serve two years; in Indiana and Rhode Island, three years; in Connecticut, Montana, South Carolina, Utah and Virginia, four years; in New Jersey, New Mexico and West Virginia, five years; in Maryland, Michigan and Tennessee, six years; in Massachusetts, eight years, and in New York, eleven years. The most effective boards have long terms and few contemporary changes.

COMPENSATION.

The compensation of members of state boards of education is nominal. The Massachusetts board provides that the "incidental expenses of the board and the traveling and other necessary expenses of the members thereof incurred in the performance of their official duties, shall be paid by the commonwealth." This is about the practice in most of the states. Kansas limits the amount paid for the actual expenses of the board to \$300.00 per annum. Indiana allows members \$5.00 per day while actually engaged in the duties of their office and five cents per mile for necessary travel.

MEMBERSHIP.

The number of members of state boards of education varies from three to twenty. Eight boards have three members, four boards four members, four, five; one, six; four, seven; five, eight; two, nine; two, ten; three, eleven, and one twenty. The states having boards of four members are Michigan, Mississippi, Missouri and Oklahoma; those having boards of five members are Florida, Georgia, Utah and Washington. The board of West Virginia has six members. Connecticut, Kentucky, North Carolina and New Mexico have boards of seven members. In the boards of Arizona, Maryland, Rhode Island, Tennessee and Virginia there are eight members. California and South Carolina have boards of nine members. In those of Louisiana and Massachusetts there are ten, in those of Indiana, Montana and New York, eleven, and New Jersey has a board of twenty members. The average number of members in the thirty-three state boards of education is about seven.

All the boards but those of New York and New Jersey have members *ex officio*. The number of such members varies from one in Michigan and West Virginia to eight in Indiana and nine in California. Thirteen boards have *ex officio* members only. In eleven states and two territories the governor appoints two or more members, in Arizona and Utah, two; in Indiana and Kansas, three; in New Mexico, five; in Maryland and Tennessee, six; in Louisiana and South Carolina, seven; in Massachusetts and Montana, eight, and in New Jersey twenty. In Arizona, New Mexico, Washington and Indiana the governor is confined in his choice to a list of eligibles. The same is true of the Senate which in Virginia elects three members. In Oklahoma a bill is to be introduced that will change the composition of the state board from the governor, secretary of state, attorney general and state superintendent to the superintendent, president of the state university, president of the A. and M. college, and two other members to be appointed by the governor from a list of ten eligibles selected by the state superintendent. In Connecticut four of the seven members, and in Rhode Island six of the eight members, are elected by the General Assembly. The three members of the Michigan board are elected by the people, and in West Virginia five of the six members are appointed by the superintendent of public instruction.

As to the personnel of the various boards of education, those of Kansas (seven members), Washington (five members), and West Virginia (six members), are composed wholly of persons engaged in educational work. Washington might possibly be an exception, but hardly so, since the appointees must be four suitable persons holding life diplomas issued by authority of the state, two of whom must be actually engaged in teaching in the common schools. In Arizona six of the eight members, in New Mexico six of the seven, in California eight of the nine, in Indiana ten of the eleven and in Virginia four of the six members, must be persons engaged in school work. There is no provision in the laws of Connecticut, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Maryland, Montana, New Jersey, South Carolina or Tennessee in regard to the professional character of the appointive members of the board. Utah provides that its two appointive members shall be "persons of large experience and eminent professional standing."

Ten of the states seem to accept the theory that reforms proceed from without and have left the way open for the appointment upon their boards of education of those who are not engaged in school work.

POWERS AND DUTIES.

There is a wide range in the state boards of education as to their powers and duties. In some cases they are few and relatively unimportant. The board of Texas, for instance, merely apportions the available school funds among the counties, cities and towns. The functions of the Idaho board are limited to issuing and revoking certificates. In several of the states, however, the state board of education is clothed with all the powers and duties necessary to give it the dignity and importance which should attach to a board ostensibly in control of the educational affairs of a state. They have general supervision and control of the public schools, and in certain cases, of all educational interests. They have the management of the whole or some part of the state school fund, the examination and certification of teachers, the recommendation or selection of a uniform series of text books. The tendency plainly is to increase the powers and duties vested in the board. This tendency is revealed by recent legislation. The extent to which it has been brought will be more plainly seen if we examine the scope of the functions of a few of the more typical boards. For the purpose of this examination we may select the board of Massachusetts, one of the oldest in the country, the board of New York which is perhaps the most powerful, the board of Connecticut, which has the widest range of powers and duties, and the West Virginia board, which is the one most recently created.

THE MASSACHUSETTS BOARD.

The Massachusetts board of education originated in 1837. Horace Mann was its first secretary. It consists of ten members, the governor, lieutenant governor, and eight members appointed by the governor. The number of its members, the method of appointment and the power of the board to elect a secretary are the same today as at the beginning.

Some attempts were made soon after its establishment to abolish the board, but its effectiveness has long since been generally admitted. As at first constituted the board had only duties, no powers. It was expected to prepare an abstract of the school returns and to make an annual report to the Legislature concerning the condition and the efficiency of the common school system and to suggest means of improving it. Today the board takes and holds in trust for the commonwealth any grant of land, gift or bequest of money or other personal property made to it for educational purposes. It prescribes the form of census, of registers kept in the schools and of returns made by school committees. It has general management of the state normal schools and of model and practice schools and of schools for the deaf and the blind. It receives applications of teachers for positions and furnishes information in regard to applicants on the request of the superintendent. It determines the length of institutes and may apply not more than \$350.00 to meet the expense of an institute. It may prescribe directions for testing the sight and hearing of school children, and it furnishes school committees with suitable rules of instruction, test cards, blanks, record books and other useful appliances for carrying out the purposes of the law in regard to medical inspection. Other powers and duties necessary to the effective supervision and promotion of the schools of the state are devolved upon it. Hinsdale in speaking of the Massachusetts board in his "Horace Mann and the Common School Revival in the United States" (page 108) says, "It has always stood for safety, at least, if not for brilliant initiative. Still further, it has no doubt provided, all things considered, a better state educational administration than the people would have directly provided for themselves, voting at the popular election. The board has also proved a very competent authority to manage, with the help of its secretary, the state normal schools." The present secretary in speaking of the efficiency of the board in collecting information says: "It can by asking its agents have by return mail a detailed description of the most obscure school, its numbers, its house, its teacher, its work—a photograph taken within two years and in the agent's note book." In another place he says: "The board has been almost the sole instrumentality in securing helpful legislation and in protecting the school from hostile enactments. It has also had a powerful uplifting and broadening influence."

THE CONNECTICUT BOARD.

The state board of education of Connecticut was established in 1838. It is similar to that of Massachusetts. It consists of seven members, the governor, lieutenant governor, secretary of state *ex officio* and four members appointed by the General Assembly. Like the board of Massachusetts, it appoints the chief school officer of the state, but its other powers and duties are even wider than those of Massachusetts. It prepares and distributes to every school an outline of questions and suggestions in regard to the duties of citizenship. It grants certificates of qualification to teachers and revokes them. It has the same power as the Massachusetts board in regard to medical inspection. It maintains

normal schools as seminaries in training teachers in the art of instructing and governing in the public schools of the state. It determines the number of normal schools and the number of pupils in each normal school. Among its other powers and duties are the following: To enforce the law relating to attendance at evening schools, and to employment of children; to investigate and grant certificates of age in certain cases; to appoint public library committees; to order sanitary changes in school houses; to examine teachers for county homes and appoint acting visitors for such schools; to relieve towns from maintaining evening schools; to appoint agents to act as superintendents in certain towns; to approve high schools in certain cases; to examine incorporated high schools and academies; to approve high schools to which children are conveyed; to approve superintendents in certain cases; to apply to the comptroller for state average attendance grant; and to make estimates and reports.

THE NEW YORK BOARD.

The New York board is exceptional. South Dakota has a state board of regents of education which has control of the educational institutions sustained wholly or in part by the state. The functions of the New York board are much more extensive.

The board of regents of the University of the state of New York is composed of eleven members who are elected by the legislature to serve for a period of eleven years. No officers of any of the incorporated educational institutions of the state are eligible to membership. There are no *ex officio* members, but the commissioner of education acts as its executive officer. The university of the State of New York is a corporation created in 1784. It includes all the incorporated higher educational institutions of the state. The state library and the state museum are departments of the university and the board may establish other departments if they are deemed necessary to the discharge of its duties. It has power to exclude from membership any institution failing to comply with the law of the state or the rules of the board. It has charge of private academies and in some measure of the public secondary schools as well as of all the higher institutions. All the powers and duties of the board in relation to the supervision of elementary and secondary schools including all schools, except colleges, technical and professional schools, are devolved upon the commissioner of education, who is elected by the board. The board of New York has power to establish such rules and regulations as are necessary to carry into effect the statutes of the state relating to education. It coöperates with other agencies in bringing within the reach of the people of the state, young and old, the largest educational opportunities by stimulating interest, recommending methods, designating suitable teachers and lecturers, and by lending books and apparatus. It establishes in the academies of the university examinations in studies, furnishes a suitable standard for graduation from academies and of admission to colleges and grants certificates and

diplomas to those who pass such examinations. It controls the whole matter of granting honorary degrees and diplomas. The board has power to incorporate any university, college, academy, library, museum, or other institution for the promotion of science, literature, art, history or other departments of knowledge. The unification act of 1904 destroying the division of power formerly existing between the board of regents and the superintendent of public instruction has provided New York with an educational organization more elaborate than is to be found in any other state. It has been criticised as illustrating too great centralization of authority. It is perhaps too early to determine whether it is superior to the other types of board. "There can be no doubt," says President Butler, "about the general tendency being strongly towards greater centralization. Not only are its advantages quite apparent, but the overwhelming current of legislation and of the decisions of the courts is making it imperative. These are practically in accord, and are to the effect that in each state the school system is not local, but general; not individual schools controlled by separate communities, but a closely related system of schools which has become a state system and is entirely under state authority. Local school officials are now uniformly held to be agents of the state for the administration of a state system of education."*

THE CALIFORNIA BOARD.

Another type of board is illustrated by that of California. It was originally composed of the governor, superintendent of public instruction and the president of the state normal school. But in 1894 the president of the University of California and the professor of education in that institution were added. The governor is the president of the board and the superintendent is its secretary. Among the powers and duties of the board are the following: To adopt rules and regulations not inconsistent with the laws of the state for its own government, and for the government of the public schools and district school libraries; to prescribe the credentials upon which persons may be granted certificates to teach in the high schools of the state; to grant life diplomas of four grades—high school, grammar school, kindergarten-primary and special; to revoke or suspend diplomas for immoral or unprofessional conduct; to designate some educational monthly journal as the official organ of the department of public instruction. The superintendent of California describes this board as effective, particularly in raising the standard of teachers.

The state board of California was provided for in the constitution of the state. An amendment to the constitution has been proposed, has been acted upon favorably by both houses of the legislature and will be submitted to the people during the present year, providing that the board shall consist of the governor, the superintendent of public instruction, a representative of the state university, selected by its president, a representative of the Leland Stanford, Jr., university,

*Education in the United States, vol. 1, p. 21.

selected by its president, a representative of the state normal schools, selected by the presidents thereof, a practical business man not directly connected with any school, selected by the governor, a representative of the rural schools, selected by the county superintendents at the superintendents' biennial convention, and a representative of the polytechnic schools, selected by the principals of the polytechnic high schools receiving state aid.

By this amendment the board is given power to compile or adopt a uniform system of text books for use in the day and evening elementary schools throughout the state.

THE WEST VIRGINIA BOARD.

I insert a brief description of the board of West Virginia because it is the one most recently provided for. The legislature authorized it in March of the present year, but it was not appointed and organized until some time in June. It is composed of the state superintendent, who is the chairman, and five other persons engaged in educational work, appointed by him, one from each congressional district and not more than three from the same political party. This board is to perform the duties hitherto performed by the state board of examiners and is to prescribe a course of study for the public schools of the state, including the district schools, the primary, the graded, the intermediate and the high schools, and define the relation that each shall bear to the others. It will also prescribe and publish the branches in which applicants for primary teachers' and high school teachers' certificates shall be examined. At the request of the state superintendent it may assist in the preparation of questions for the several examinations. It is to grant state professional certificates, one class good for twelve years and another for six years. The recognition of certificates from other states is also to be under the control of the board. The state superintendent of West Virginia reports that he has been working for a board of education for several years and that he is not altogether satisfied with the provision that has been made.

BOARDS RECENTLY RECOMMENDED.

The modern tendency towards the creation of State boards of education with large powers and duties is still better illustrated perhaps by the recommendations of the various educational commissions that have recently proposed new school legislation. The commission of Pennsylvania urges the creation of a board of education of seven members with the superintendent of public instruction as the executive officer. The members are to be appointed by the governor, by and with the advice and consent of two-thirds of the Senate. Three of the members must be successful educators of high standing, connected with the public school system of the commonwealth. The term of office is six years. The powers and duties prescribed for the board are the following: To report and recommend to the governor and the General Assembly such

legislation as may be needed to make the public schools of the commonwealth more efficient and useful; to equalize through special appropriations for this purpose or otherwise the educational advantages of the different school districts of the commonwealth; to inspect and require reports from and to supervise the educational work in institutions wholly or partly supported by the state which are not supervised by the public school authorities; to prescribe and enforce rules and regulations for the examination of teachers in the commonwealth except in school districts of the first class: to encourage and promote agricultural education, art education, libraries, public lectures, manual training, domestic science and such educational types of vocational and practical education as the needs of the commonwealth may from time to time require; to prepare approved lists of text books and school supplies; to prescribe rules and regulations and provide for the sanitary equipment and inspection of school buildings and of their sanitary equipment and to take such other action as it may deem necessary and expedient to promote the physical and moral welfare of the children of the public schools; and to standardize the public school system, to provide for new forms of educational effort, and in general to take such action as may be necessary to increase the efficiency of the educational system of the commonwealth.

The commission of Iowa has recommended the creation of a state board of education which shall consist of the state superintendent of public instruction who is to be the president of the board, the president of the state university, the president of the state normal school, the president of the state college of agriculture and mechanic arts, one county superintendent, one city superintendent and one member of the faculty of an independent liberal arts college within the state. The three members last mentioned are to be appointed by the governor. The term of office is four years. The powers and duties recommended are the following: To elect a secretary of the board who shall receive a salary not to exceed \$1,200.00; to act as a board of examiners for all legal licenses to teach in the public schools of the state and to issue uniform county certificates and states certificates of the grades and classes provided for by law; to inspect and classify all public schools as to classes of study, teaching force, equipment and sanitation, to inspect and supervise the school libraries provided for by law, to inspect and classify such higher institutions as seek accredited relations for the purpose of the certification of teachers; to appoint a state supervisor of schools; to act under the direct supervision of the state superintendent of public instruction.

The state board of education of Washington as recommended by the commission is to consist of a superintendent of public instruction who shall be *ex officio* president of the board, the president of the university of Washington, the president of the state college of Washington, the principal of one of the state normal schools elected by the principals of the state normal schools, and four persons holding life diplomas issued under the authority of the state and actively engaged in educational work, appointed by the governor, one of whom shall be a super-

intendent or principal of a school of a district of the first class, one a county superintendent of schools, one a principal of a fully accredited high school, one a representative of an endowed or private institution of higher learning and one other suitable person. The term of office is two years. The deputy superintendent of public instruction is to be *ex officio* secretary of the board. The powers and duties prescribed are as follows: To approve the preparatory requirements for entrance to the university of Washington, the state college of Washington, and the state normal schools of Washington; to adopt courses for the state normal schools, for the department of education of the university of Washington and the state college of Washington, and for all normal training departments of higher institutions within the state of Washington which may be accredited and whose graduates may become entitled to receive teachers' life diplomas or limited professional certificates, to investigate the character of the work to be performed as a condition of entrance to and graduation from normal schools, colleges, universities and other institutions of higher education and to prepare an accredited list of those higher institutions whose graduates may be awarded certificates by the superintendent of public instruction without examination except upon the state manual of Washington, to prepare an accredited list of state life certificates and life diplomas issued in other states by examination upon which certificates may be issued in Washington without examination except upon the state manual of Washington; to examine and accredit secondary schools for which purpose the board is authorized to elect two members; to prepare an outline, course or courses of study for the primary, grammar and high school departments of the common schools, and to prescribe such rules for the general government of the common schools as shall secure regularity of attendance, prevent truancy, secure efficiency and promote the true interests of the common schools; to prepare a uniform series of questions to be used by the county superintendents in the examination of teachers, to determine rules and regulations for conducting the same and to prepare questions for the examination of applicants for state elementary certificates and life diplomas; to prepare uniform questions for the examination of pupils of the schools of the state, completing the grammar school course of study, and to hear and decide appeals as provided by law.

The recommendations of the Illinois Educational Commission with respect to a State board are embodied in the following bill which has been submitted to the General Assembly:

A BILL

For an Act to create a State Board of Education and to define its powers and duties.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the People of the State of Illinois, represented in the General Assembly:* That a State Board of Education consisting of eleven member is hereby authorized, to be constituted as hereinafter described.

Sec. 2. Such a board shall consist of the Superintendent of Public Instruction who shall be *ex officio* chairman thereof; the chairman of the educational committees of the Senate and the House, each of whom shall be a

member *ex officio*; and representatives of each of the following school interests to be selected by a board consisting of the Governor, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court and the Superintendent of Public Instruction: The University of Illinois, the State normal schools, the non-State colleges and universities, the city superintendency, the county superintendency, the public high schools; and two eminent citizens of the State not directly engaged in educational work.*

Sec. 3. On or before the second Monday of January next after their appointment the appointive members shall cast lots for their respective terms of office for two, four, six and eight years; and biennially thereafter two members shall be selected by the appointive board as successors to the members whose terms of office then expire, which successors shall serve for a term of eight years. In case of a vacancy the appointive board may select a member to serve for the unexpired term.

Sec. 4. Such board shall have the power and it shall be its duty:

1. To make general rules for the supervision and inspection of the public schools of the State required by law.

2. To provide suggestive courses of study for rural, elementary and high schools.

3. To prepare and distribute among school and municipal officers suggestive plans and specifications for the construction and equipment of school buildings.

4. To fix the time of examinations of applicants for State and county teachers' certificates, to prepare all questions for such examinations, to grade all examination papers, and to fix the standard for passing; to prescribe rules for the recognition of certificates from other States, and to prescribe all rules and regulations necessary to carry into effect the provisions of the law in regard to the certification of teachers.

5. To propose and recommend to school officers plans for organizing and conducting teachers' institutes.

6. In coöperation with the State Board of Health, to prescribe rules and regulations for the sanitary inspection of school buildings, and for promoting the physical welfare of pupils and teachers in the public schools.

Sec. 5. The Superintendent of Public Instruction, with the advice and consent of the State Board of Education, shall make such appointments as may be necessary to render effectual the rules and regulations of the board.

Sec. 6. The members of the State Board of Education shall receive no compensation for their services. The incidental expenses of the board and the necessary traveling and other incidental expenses of its members, incurred in the performance of their official duties, shall be paid from the State treasury from any funds not otherwise appropriated upon the presentation of an itemized and verified statement of such expenses, approved by the Governor.

*In the Senate committee this section, with the approval of three members of the commission who were present at the hearing, was amended so as to read as follows:

Sec. 2. Such board shall consist of the Superintendent of Public Instruction who shall be *ex officio* chairman thereof; and representatives of each of the following school interests to be selected by the Governor of the State, by and with the approval of the Senate, the University of Illinois, the State normal schools, the non-state colleges and universities, the city superintendency, the county superintendency, the public high schools, the non-state high schools, the state elementary schools, the non-state elementary schools, and two eminent citizens of the State not directly engaged in educational work. *Provided, however,* that not more than seven members of said board shall be of the same political party.

The following table shows the states now having a state board of education, the number of members, the term of office, their compensation and their powers and duties:

BOARDS OF EDUCATION.

State.	No.	Term.	Composition.	Powers and Duties.
Arizona	8	Governor, treasurer, superintendent, principals normal schools, president university, two principals or superintendent appointed by governor	1. To prescribe and enforce uniform series of text books in public schools. 2. Same in regard to course of study. 3. To grant 6 year and life diplomas and revoke them. 4. To adopt lists of books for school libraries
California.....	9	Governor, superintendent, president University of California and its professor of pedagogy, principals normal schools (5).....	1. To prescribe uniform series of text books in common schools and cause them to be printed by state and sold at cost. 2. To adopt rules for government of schools and libraries. 3. To prescribe high school credentials. 4. To grant life diplomas of 4 grades and revoke them. 5. To designate an educational journal as official. 6. To designate credentials of other states on which certificates may be issued....
Colorado.....	3	2	Superintendent, secretary of state, attorney general.....	1. To grant and revoke certificates. 2. To adopt rules and regulations for government of schools. The legislature and the board are prohibited by the constitution from prescribing text books.....
Connecticut ..	7	4	Governor, lieutenant governor, secretary board of education, <i>ex officio</i> members and 4 appointed by general assembly.....	1. To have general supervision and control of educational interests. 2. To direct what books may be used in schools. 3. To secure uniformity of reports. 4. To hold and conduct teachers' meetings. 5. To report to governor. 6. To grant and revoke certificates. 7. To provide for testing eyesight of children. 8. To enforce child labor law. 9. To maintain normal school and model school. (Note—For additional powers and duties, see special description of Connecticut board, p. 16.....)

Boards of Education—Continued.

State.	No.	Term.	Composition.	Powers and Duties.
Delaware	3	President Delaware College, superintendent and secretary of state	1. To prescribe uniform series of text books. 2. To secure uniform system of reports from teachers and school officers. 3. To determine matters of controversy
Florida	5	4	Governor, superintendent, secretary of state, attorney general	1. To remove public school officers for cause. 2. To manage and invest school funds. 3. To decide appeals. 4. To direct and control normal schools, military institute and Institute for Blind, Deaf and Dumb
Georgia	5	2	Governor, state school committee, secretary of state, attorney general, comptroller general	1. To decide appeals. 2. To order school census. 3. To prescribe uniform series of text books
Idaho	3	2	Superintendent, secretary of state, attorney general	1. To grant certificates and revoke them
Indiana	11	3	Governor, superintendent, president State University, President Purdue University, president state normal, superintendents 3 largest cities, and 3 citizens actively engaged in educational work in the state, one of whom must be county superintendent appointed by governor	1. To grant and revoke certificates. 2. To act as teachers' training board. 3. To act as state library board. 4. To elect trustees of state university, and 5 of the 8 trustees of the state normal. 5. To appoint board of visitors to state normal. 6. To prescribe course of study for accredited schools. 7. To select or procure the compilation of a series of text books to be used in common schools
Kansas	7	2	Superintendent, chancellor State University, president State Agricultural College, president state normal and 3 appointed by governor	1. To grant certificates. 2. To prescribe courses of study for public schools, normal institutes and in Indian training. 3. To examine and accredit educational institutions upon application

Boards of Education—Continued.

State.	No.	Term.	Composition.	Powers and Duties.
Kentucky.....	3	4	Superintendent, attorney general, secretary of state.	1. To prepare rules, by-laws and regulations for government of schools. 2. To prepare suitable lists of books for county libraries. 3. To prescribe regulations for management of libraries. 4. To prescribe and publish graded course of study for public schools
Louisiana.....	10	4	Governor, superintendent, attorney general, 7 appointed by governor, 1 from each congressional district.....	1. To prepare rules, regulations and by-laws for government of public schools. 2. To enforce uniformity of text books in public schools.....
Maryland.....	8	6	Governor, superintendent and 6 appointed by governor, at least 2 of whom shall be from opposite political parties.....	1. To remove or suspend county superintendents. 2. To decide controversies arising over the law. 3. To have general care and supervision of public school interests. 4. To secure uniformity in statistical reports of teachers and county boards. 5. To grant certificates. 6. To act as trustees of state normal schools.....
Massachusetts	10	8	Governor, lieutenant governor and 8 appointed by governor, with approval of council.....	1. To secure uniformity of reports. 2. To appoint secretary. 3. To manage state normal schools. 4. To arrange for practice schools. 5. To direct and supervise education of state beneficiaries in special institutions for deaf and blind. 6. To receive applications of teachers and furnish information concerning such applicants to school committees and superintendent. 7. To manage the school fund. 8. To determine the length of institutes and apply not more than \$350 to meet expenses of each. 9. To grant certificates to superintendents of schools. 10. To prescribe rules of instruction, test cards, blanks, etc., for testing sight and hearing of children. 11. To visit county truancy schools. 12. To inspect high schools for the purpose of approving for state reimbursement of tuition expenditures for pupils of other towns not having high schools
Michigan.....	4	6	Superintendent, (secretary,) 3 elected by popular vote..	1. To supervise normals and prescribe course of study in same. 2. To grant state certificates. 3. To pass on text books in physiology.....

Boards of Education—Continued.

State.	No.	Term.	Composition.	Powers and Duties.
Mississippi....	3	4	Secretary of State, attorney general and superintendent public instruction.....	1. To decide appeals from the decision of the county or the state superintendent. 2. To revoke a county certificate for cause. 3. To audit claims against the common school fund. 4. To determine necessary contingent expenses of state superintendent's office. 5. To regulate all matters arising in the practical administration of the school system which are not otherwise provided for. 6. To adopt, if thought necessary, a course of study to be pursued in the schools. 7. To designate an arbor day. 8. To require reports from the county superintendents
Missouri.....	4	4	Superintendent (president,) governor, secretary of state, attorney general	1. To supervise entire educational interests of state. 2. To see that state school moneys are collected and properly applied, and to report to the legislature. 3. To prescribe requirements for approval of summer schools. 4. To prepare outlines of work for county institutes. 5. To appoint 1 of the 3 members of county board of education.
Montana.....	11	4	Governor, superintendent, attorney general and 8 appointed by governor	1. To control and supervise state educational institutions. 2. To grant 6 year and life diplomas. 3. To appoint instructors in county institutes. 4. To formulate a state course of study for high schools, and to accredit such high schools as do satisfactory work. 5. To authorize the superintendent to provide rules and regulations for conducting eighth grade examinations
Nevada.....	3	4	Governor, superintendent, president of university	1. To prescribe the course of study in high schools. 2. To recommend list of books for district libraries. 3. To issue and revoke state and county certificates. 4. To act with 4 appointees of governor as state text book commission..

Boards of Education—Continued.

State.	No.	Term.	Composition.	Powers and Duties.
New Jersey ..	20	5	Appointed by governor; superintendent is secretary	1. To manage state normal schools and state charitable educational institutions. 2. To appoint, and for cause remove, county superintendents of schools. 3. To prescribe rules and regulations for teachers' institutes. 4. To decide appeals from the decision of the state superintendent. 5. To make rules and regulations for the examination of teachers and the grading of certificates. 6. To appoint 1 member to act with superintendent and principals of normal schools as board of examiners
New Mexico .	7	5	Governor, superintendent, and 5 appointed by governor from heads of territorial educational institutions, president of St. Michaels College and superintendents of 4 largest cities	1. To grant, renew and revoke certificates. 2. To adopt series of text books. 3. To prescribe uniform course of study for public schools. 4. To control teachers' institutes
New York	11	11	Elected by legislature as far as may be, one from each judicial district	1. To establish such rules and regulations as are necessary to carry into effect the statutes relating to education. 2. To encourage and promote higher education. 3. To visit and inspect educational institutions and departments of the university and to require reports. 4. To distribute to, to expend or to administer for them such property and funds as the state may appropriate therefor, or as the university may own or hold. 5. To establish examinations in the academies of the university, furnishing a suitable standard for graduation from academies and admission to colleges. 6. To confer degrees and diplomas and certificates. 7. To cooperate with other agencies in extending opportunities and facilities for education to adults as well as youths. 8. To have control of the state library and state museum, and may establish other departments, if deemed necessary, and to maintain lectures connected with higher education

Boards of Education—Continued.

State.	No.	Term.	Composition.	Powers and Duties.
N. Carolina...	7	4	Governor, superintendent, lieutenant governor, secretary of state, treasurer, auditor, attorney general..	1. To loan money from state literary fund to county boards of education for building and improving school houses. 2. To adopt uniform series of text books for public schools. 3. To control colored normals. 4. To elect directors of state normal and Indian College and trustees of East Carolina Training School. 6. To sell swamp lands belonging to board. 7. To pass upon appeals from county board. 8. To prescribe other studies deemed necessary in public schools
Oklahoma	4	4	Superintendent, governor, secretary of state, attorney general	1. To prepare questions for county and city examinations. 2. To grant certificates to teachers, conductors, and instructors of normal institutes. 3. To prepare blanks. 4. To accredit schools
Oregon	3	4	Governor, secretary of state and superintendent.....	1. To authorize series of text books adopted by text book commission (the latter composed of 5 appointed by governor.) 2. To prepare course of study of grammar grade schools and of certain high schools. 3. To prescribe rules and regulations for general government of schools. 4. To grant state certificates and diplomas on recommendation of state board of examiners. (4 to 9 professional teachers appointed by state board.) 5. To indicate sources of questions on theory and practice.
Rhode Island.	8	3	Governor, lieutenant governor, 1 from each of 4 counties and 2 from Providence county, county members elected by general assembly	1. To elect commissioner of schools, who acts as secretary. 2. To appropriate money for libraries and to prescribe the character of books for same. 3. To exercise certain control over private schools. 4. To prescribe blanks. 5. To make annual report to general assembly. 6. To examine teachers and to issue and revoke certificates

Boards of Education—Continued.

State.	No.	Term.	Composition.	Powers and Duties.
S. Carolina ...	9	4	Governor, superintendent and not more than 7 appointed by governor.....	1. To adopt rules and regulations for government of free schools. 2. To prescribe and enforce rules for examination of teachers. 3. To prescribe standard of proficiency entitling persons examined by county board to certificate as teacher. 4. To prescribe and enforce the course of study in free public schools. 5. To prescribe and enforce uniform series of text books in free public schools. 6. To grant and revoke certificates. 7. To award scholarships created by general assembly in state institutions
Tennessee. ...	8	6	Six appointed by governor: governor is president and superintendent is secretary and treasurer	1. To report to general assembly. 2. To inspect management of state normal. 3. To locate, adopt course of study and employ teachers and officers of normal schools. 4. To grant diplomas. 5. To prescribe rules and regulations examination of applicants for county superintendent
Texas	3	2	Governor (superintendent secretary <i>ex officio</i>), secretary of state, comptroller..	1. To apportion available school fund among counties, cities and towns. 2. To consider appeals from state superintendent. 3. To care for investment of permanent school funds
Utah	5	4	Superintendent, president state university, president agricultural college, 2 appointed by governor.....	1. To grant diplomas and certificates. 2. To appoint 2 of 5 members to prescribe course of study

Boards of Education—Concluded.

State.	No.	Term.	Composition.	Powers and Duties.
Virginia	8	4	Governor, attorney general, superintendent, 3 elected by senate from list of eligibles, including members of faculties of state institutions, 2 division superintendents of schools	1. To divide state into appropriate school divisions. 2. To prescribe duties of superintendent, to make rules and regulations for the management and conduct of schools. 3. To provide for the examination of teachers by a state board of examiners, and to accredit schools. 4. To select text books, furniture and appliances for use in the public schools. 5. To guard against the multiplication of schools. 6. To decide appeals from superintendent of public instruction. 7. To punish, suspend or remove division superintendents of schools. 9. To appoint directors of the state library. 10. To report to general assembly
Washington..	5	2	Superintendent, 4 holding state diplomas appointed by governor.....	1. To prepare a course of study for primary, grammar and high schools. 2. To grant state certificates and diplomas. 3. To prepare uniform series of questions to be used by county superintendents in examinations. 4. To accredit schools. Note—Washington has also board of higher education exercising control over normals and university.....
W. Virginia ..	6	5	Superintendent and 5 others engaged in educational work appointed by him, one from each congressional district.....	1. To act as state board of examiners. 2. To prescribe a course of study for the public schools. 3. To define the relation of the different kinds of schools

THE STATE BOARD AND THE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The relation which the superintendent of public instruction sustains to the state board of education differs among the states. He is almost always a member of the board and in nine of the states, namely: Colorado, Idaho, Kentucky, Missouri, New York, Utah, Virginia, Washington and West Virginia he is its executive officer. As has already been seen he is sometimes an appointee of the board. This is the case in Connecticut, Massachusetts, New York and Rhode Island. In West

Virginia, however, he is given power to appoint the five other members. This plan has been approved by some of the superintendents of other states.

ADVANTAGES OF A STATE BOARD.

The educational systems of the various states, like the bodies of law under which they are operated, have grown up in a more or less haphazard manner to meet the most imperative needs of rapidly increasing populations and rapidly changing conditions. At the beginning the schooling of children was left wholly to the initiative of the local communities, and rightly so for the reason that differences in social and industrial conditions, the customs, predilections and ideals of the people made the educational needs of a state essentially diverse. Moreover, a central body of any kind was too remote to act effectively as a stimulating and regulating agency. Not only were the support and management of schools a matter of merely local concern, but it was often left to each community to say whether it should have any school at all. All this was justifiable under the conditions then existing. But conditions have changed. Close interrelations of the various communities in all the states of the Union have been developed with great rapidity. The development of system in the educational work of the states, however, did not always keep pace with them. Industrial and social conditions, customs and ideals, the population itself, have become practically homogeneous. A central body to exercise supervision over the schools of a state is not now remote either in time or in space. Education has become distinctly a state function. The doctrine that the taxable property of the entire state should educate the children of the state has been generally accepted. Complete state educational systems are, therefore, needed, and a state board of education with liberal powers, and opportunity for discretion in matters of detail, is an indispensable part of such system.

One of the greatest advantages to be derived from a state board of education is systematic organization of the educational forces of the state. System means economy, the elimination of waste, immediate action to meet unexpected emergencies, orderly progress. The development of system characterizes all progress, particularly all industrial progress. Business men are quick to see the advantages of it, as is illustrated by any progressive and successful industrial corporation.

Now the educational work of a state is, in one of its aspects, a business proposition. In Illinois, for instance, there are a million pupils to be instructed, 13,000 buildings erected for that purpose, 28,000 teachers employed, all involving an expenditure of \$32,000,000.00. If this vast business were put in the hands of business men they would instinctively begin immediately to introduce system in order to eliminate the present waste of education, and thus increase the ratio of educational results to educational expenditure. They would probably

create not only an executive head of the business to insure swift action, but also a board of directors to give counsel, and to lay down rules within which this activity should be exercised.

A state board of education for the state corresponds in a way to the board of directors in an industrial corporation. The superintendent of public instruction is usually the executive head. The analogy is not perfect but it is sufficiently close to suggest some of the advantages of a state board, and some of the possibilities of increasing the efficiency of our school systems by making them still more systematic. The superintendent needs the board of education for some of the same reasons that the executive officer of an industrial corporation needs a board of directors. He needs it for the same reason that the president needs his cabinet, and as the needs of the head of an industry are in reality the needs of the stock holders, the needs of the president those of the people, so also are the needs of a superintendent of public instruction for a state board of education in the final analysis the needs of the state.

This need will be the more conspicuous if we consider the duties that devolve upon a state superintendent who is unassisted by a board of any kind. The school law of Illinois, for instance, imposes upon the superintendent and confers upon him nine different powers. Some of these duties and powers are of the most general nature. For instance, he is required "to supervise all the common and public schools in the state." He is also required "to make such rules and regulations as may be necessary to carry into efficient and uniform effect the provisions" of all laws for establishing and maintaining free schools in the state. He is required to make a biennial report to the Governor. He is *ex officio* a member and secretary of the board of education of the State of Illinois, a member of the board of trustees of the University of Illinois, of the Southern Illinois Normal University, of the Northern Illinois State Normal School, of the Eastern Illinois State Normal School, of the Western Illinois State Normal School, of the Natural History Museum, of the Lincoln Homestead Trustees, of the Commissioners of the Lincoln Monument Ground, of the Commissioners of the State Library and of the Directors of the Illinois Farmers' Institute. He is required to visit all the charitable institutions of the state that are educational in their character, to examine their facilities for instruction, and to prescribe forms for such reports as he may desire from their superintendents. These are only a few of his duties. It is clear that a board of education might relieve him of some of these duties, as well as assist him by counsel. Such a board would be of invaluable assistance to him in impressing upon the people of the state the ideas which he wishes to become dominant and effective in school organization and administration and especially to aid in supporting the policies which he endeavors to carry into effect. In a word, a State Board of Education properly constituted should increase incalculably the efficiency of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

In addition to the advantages just described a State Board of Education should give to the school system an expansiveness that is highly

desirable and that could hardly exist without it. With some discretion in matters of administrative detail it would enable the system to adjust itself more or less automatically to the changing educational needs and conditions of a growing commonwealth. The law should define the direction of expansion and the limits within which it may take place, but it might well leave to the system some room to burgeon out without the necessity of additional legislation. If the board is essentially a rule making body, the discretion allowed to it, while confined within safe limits, would yet afford a certain liberty of movement and freedom of adjustment which naturally belong to all things that are alive.

Again, an efficient State board is valuable to the State if it does nothing more than serve as a continuous body for the study of school problems and the dissemination of knowledge throughout the state concerning educational conditions and educational progress. The Massachusetts board has been conspicuously helpful in this respect. Its earlier reports especially not only carried information to the people of Massachusetts, but were republished by the legislatures of other states, by the British Parliament, and by the German government.*

OBJECTIONS.

The history of school legislation in every state shows that movements in the direction of a more complete educational system usually meet with opposition. The effort to place the schools of the county under the supervision of a county superintendent of schools, and the effort to put all of the schools of the state under the supervision of a state school officer have evoked many objections. It was said that such efforts were a reflection on the existing school authorities, that they contemplated a dangerous centralization of power, that they involved the creation of new offices of doubtful utility to absorb more of the people's money, that the schools were already highly efficient. Why not let well enough alone? Such were the objections raised by the ultra-conservative. They are now seen to have been without foundation, or to have risen from a misconception of the nature and function of these offices, or a misunderstanding of the true relation of the schools of a community to the general well being of the state; and county and state supervision of schools has become a well established policy. The same objections are heard again, however, when it is proposed to create a State Board of Education.

The main objection to the creation of a State Board of Education is that it involves an undesirable, if not dangerous, centralization of power. To this it may be said that, in this case, the fear arises partly from a failure to distinguish between a true centralization of power and an organization of functions or duties. When a superintendent of public instruction is provided for, he is usually clothed with great power.

*Seventy-first Annual Report, Board of Education, Massachusetts, 1906-7, p. 11.

But the special activities necessarily connected with the full exercise of this power are distributed among various agencies. To gather them up, organize and unify them under a central board should not be regarded as a centralization of power as usually implied by that expression.

The second objection is that a board of education may be so constituted as to be or to become a political body with selfish or partisan ends and with no deep and abiding interest in educational problems or the welfare of the schools. This is a real danger but it may be avoided by the adoption of a wise method of constituting a board. The experience of the various states seems to point to the selection of the members of the State Board of Education by appointment as the least objectionable. An efficient board must be a body of educational experts, and when experts are desired it is generally true that they are more likely to be secured by appointment, if the appointing power can be trusted, than they are by election. With the appointing power vested in the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, or in a carefully selected appointing board, there is little to fear either from unwise appointments or from appointments dictated by personal or political considerations. The mode of appointment recommended by the Illinois Educational Commission is to have the appointive members selected by an appointing board consisting of the Governor of the State, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, and the Superintendent of Public Instruction. If a board so constituted can not be trusted to act considerately and unselfishly in a matter so intimately related to the welfare of the great educational and moral interests of the State, it would seem that we must despair of being able to secure a non-political and effective board. Only one state board of education in the country is elected by popular vote, and this is a board whose powers and duties are relatively few and simple. Constitution by appointment is, therefore, in harmony with the practice of other states as well as in accordance with the conclusions reached from a purely rational consideration of the subject.

We may say, then, in concluding the discussion of the State Board of Education, that such a body should increase the efficiency of a school system by introducing greater economy, and by increasing its responsiveness to newly arising conditions and needs; that it involves no dangerous centralization of power, that, if properly constituted, it would be an agency by means of which the entire State could avail itself, without any considerable additional expense, of the wisdom of disinterested and high minded citizens in devising educational policies, in guarding the schools from ill-advised, ill-considered or hostile legislation, and in assisting the chief school officer of the State to perform more efficiently the duties imposed upon him by law, but which under present circumstances are too often such as no single officer can adequately perform.

sioner. Illinois soon followed the example of New York in providing for county supervision and as the history of the county superintendency in that State is typical it is given in full.

THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENCY IN ILLINOIS.

The county superintendency in Illinois originated in an office which had nothing whatever to do with the supervision of schools. By an Act of Jan. 22, 1829 it was made the duty of the county commissioner's court "to appoint some good, competent and responsible person of the county to act as commissioner and agent for the county" in the sale of public lands. This person was the prototype of the present county superintendent. Thus the county superintendent was originally merely a county land agent. In 1833 this commissioner was authorized to apportion the interest of the school fund in his county among the several teachers entitled thereto and was permitted to retain as his compensation two and one-half per cent on all sums apportioned. By the Act of 1841 the office of school commissioner was made elective. The term was fixed at two years and the compensation was changed to three per cent on the amount derived from the sale of lands, two per cent on moneys relouaned, and two per cent on the amount of all moneys distributed and paid to teachers and trustees for the support of schools. No supervisory duties were required of the commissioner until 1845. In that year it was provided that "Each and every school commissioner shall be *ex officio* superintendent of common schools in his county and shall by himself or some other qualified person, as often as practicable, visit all the townships in his county, inquire into the condition and manner of conducting schools in the same, and use his influence to carry out the system proposed by the State Superintendent."* He was also authorized to examine teachers and grant certificates. Under the Act of 1841 this duty had been performed by the township trustees.

By the Act of 1849 the county court (the county board) was "authorized and required" to pay the school commissioners such an amount as they should deem right and proper, not exceeding two dollars per day for each day, nor exceeding fifty days in any year, actually spent in the discharge of their duties as *ex officio* superintendents of schools. The Act of 1851 repealed this provision and made the payment discretionary with the county boards. Supervision by visitation was thus stopped in most of the counties, and an appeal was made to the Legislature to restore the per diem. The Act of 1855 permitted the commissioner to retain out of the distributive fund two dollars per day not to exceed fifty days in any year for visiting schools. The Act of 1861 permitted him to retain the same amount per day for not exceeding one hundred days in any year. It authorized county boards to make an ap-

*At that time the Secretary of State was *ex officio* State Superintendent of common schools.

propriation out of the county treasury to pay the commissioner an additional sum for visiting schools and other educational services and to pay for holding teachers' institutes.

Finally, in 1865, the name commissioner of schools was changed to county superintendent of schools and the term of office was extended to four years.

Prior to this time much dissatisfaction had been manifested by superintendents of public instruction both in regard to the term and the duties of the county officer. In 1858 William H. Powell, the second to be elected to the office of superintendent of public instruction, recommended "that the office of school commissioner be so far modified as to provide for the election, once in three years, of a county superintendent of common schools, who shall be commissioned by the State Superintendent, and act directly under his control. To remove the office as far as possible from the control of politics, the county superintendent should be elected by the school officers of each county, and the question of qualification should be the only one at issue in his election."* John P. Brooks, the fourth superintendent of public instruction, called attention to the fact that for the least important and least difficult services by the commissioner of schools he was allowed ample compensation, but for the most essential and onerous services no compensation at all was provided. "The policy of the State with reference to this office," said he, "is strange beyond comprehension. If it had been the direct purpose of the State to legislate the office into public contempt, it could hardly have been done more surely. To associate it with the noisy strifes and chicaneries of party, compelling men to go hawking and bargaining about amongst political traders and hucksters to gain the place—to assign it so frail and precarious a tenure that men who step into the office have hardly time to reconnoitre their position before they are called to step out—to add insult to injury by the appointment of a compensation so absolutely insignificant—all taken together is certainly enough to make the office contemptible in the public eye, and to make the office undesirable in the eyes of the incumbent himself."†

By the law of 1865 it was made the duty of the county superintendent "to visit every school in his county at least once each year, and oftener if practicable, and to note the methods of instruction, the branches taught, the text books used, and the discipline, government and general condition of the schools." For this service he was allowed a compensation at the rate of three dollars a day. Later this was raised to four dollars a day for each day's service actually performed. In revising the school law in 1872 the phrase "if so directed by the county board" was introduced, thus making school visitation dependent upon the direction of the county board. As a result the county supervision of schools passed almost into abeyance. At the time the

*Second Biennial Report Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, pp. 29-30.

†Fifth Biennial Report Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, 1863-64, pp. 23-24.

change was made only ten per cent of the public schools of the State were left unvisited by the county superintendents. Eight years after the change sixty-six per cent of the schools were not visited. In forty counties there was no visitation, and in twenty-four counties practically none.* Finally in 1885 the old requirement that the county superintendent shall visit each school in the county at least once a year was re-enacted. The number of schools visited increased from 5,124 in 1883-4 to 9,973 in 1885-6, and the number of schools visited more than once increased one hundred and sixty per cent.†

METHODS OF ELECTION.

There is great diversity in the manner of selecting county superintendents of schools. The prevailing method is that of popular election. This is the practice in twenty-seven states and the two territories. In four of the states, namely, Georgia, North Carolina, Louisiana and Maryland, the county superintendent, or county commissioner or parish superintendent, as the case may be, is elected by the county board. In Indiana he is elected by the trustees of schools who in conjunction with the chairman of the board of education in each town and city of the county constitute the county board. In Pennsylvania he is elected by the school directors of the county. In Delaware he is appointed by the governor and in Vermont by the governor and state superintendent. In New Jersey the county superintendent, and in Virginia the division superintendent, is appointed by the state board of education. In Tennessee the county superintendent is elected by the county court. In certain counties of Texas the county judge is *ex officio* county superintendent of public instruction.

It appears then, that there are eight different methods embodied in this country in the selection of county superintendent. The agents electing or appointing them are as follows: The people, the governor, and the state superintendent, the state board of education, a county board of one kind or another, the township trustees, the school directors and the county court. This diversity with respect to the election of so important a school officer can hardly be accounted for on the ground of differences in social, political and educational conditions. Something must be allowed for these differences, but the diversity is due in part to the fact that the method of electing the county superintendent is one of the problems of school administration that has not in many of the states been thoroughly worked out. As a rule the method of selection employed represents a form of political inheritance. What, then, is the best method of selecting the county superintendent? This is a most important question of educational administration.

As to the first method, namely, election by the people, there are several arguments which may be urged in favor of it. It is first of all a democratic method, giving to the people an immediate voice in the selection of the school official, who, next to the teacher, is most closely

*Thirteenth Biennial Report Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, 1878-80, p. 64.

†Sixteenth Biennial Report Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, 1884-6, p. 238.

associated with the work of educating their children. Moreover, it is the method which now prevails in twenty-seven states and two territories. It has long been practiced and the people are familiar with it and have grown accustomed to it. The results achieved by it have been, on the whole, fairly satisfactory. The schools have progressed. Good men have been selected, some of them especially so. On the whole the county superintendents elected by the people will compare favorably both in ability and devotion to the interests of the schools with the county superintendents chosen by other methods. Then, too, it is not a bad thing for a superintendent to be brought into that close contact with the people which election by the people necessitates. The canvass of the county is not a bad preliminary preparation for assuming control of the county schools. It gives a knowledge of the people, their manner of living, their peculiar modes of thought, their attitude with respect to schools and their general education needs, all of which is necessary to the most effective supervision. By forcing the candidate to get out among the people, to put his "best foot forward," it tends to break up the exclusiveness which is not an uncommon fault among people engaged in educational work. Books rather than men tend to become the object of their study. But the work of the county superintendent is more with men than with books. He must awaken the interest of men and women in things educational. He must harmonize their differences, guide their efforts, teach them without seeming to teach, lead them without seeming to lead. The knowledge which comes from experience with the people is therefore a necessary qualification of the county superintendent. He will be all the better if he be a man of the people. Finally, there can be little doubt but that election by the people gives to the county superintendent a feeling of independence and a courage which election by any other agency tends to diminish or destroy. It is desirable to have a county superintendent work with a county board rather than under a county board. And this condition is perhaps more likely to be attained if the county superintendent feels that he is responsible only to the people.

On the other hand it may be said that under this method of election the county superintendent is not, as a rule, elected by the people, that is, by all the people, but by the members of the dominant political party. To be eligible to nomination for the superintendency he must reside in the county, must be, as a rule, affiliated with the party that is numerically superior and must have what is known in political parlance as "availability," and this too often is not determined by his promise or merits as a supervisor of schools. To win the election he must subject himself to all the annoyances of "the candidate," to impositions that he would like to resent, sometimes to attacks on his character made merely for the purpose of affecting the vote. If he is successful in the election and wishes a second term, if he needs it to mature his plans and bring to fruition those that he has put in operation, he must divide his attention between getting a second nomination and

getting educational results, between educational policies and partisan politics. He must be assessed as other candidates are assessed and must, for a time at least, neglect the interests of the schools and his own proper field of labor to conduct a political campaign. All this from the viewpoint of school supervision seems a useless waste of time and energy. What has a man's politics to do with his merits as a supervisor of schools? Nothing at all.

Another objection to election by the people rises into view the moment the county superintendency is regarded as a professional position requiring special educational qualifications and expert ability. The interests of the schools of a county obviously demand the best talent available no matter where it is found. But election by the people narrows, by custom if not by law, not merely to the available citizens of the county but to the available members of the dominant political party, the number of persons from whom the superintendent may be selected. Why should not the county superintendent, like the city superintendent, be elected without regard to his place of residence as well as without regard to his political affiliations?

From the beginning strong opposition to the election of county superintendents by popular vote has been manifested by leading educators. In Illinois the first Superintendent of Public Instruction urged that county school commissioners be chosen by the directors of the boards of education in each county in the State.* His successor in office declared that "to remove the office as far as possible from the control of politics, the county superintendent should be elected by the school officers of each county, and the question of qualification should be the only one at issue in his election."† Newton Bateman, certainly one of the most enlightened of the early superintendents, was of the same opinion. "In order to remove the choice of these officers as far as possible from unjust political bias," said he, "and to secure the great ends of ability, unity, fidelity and vigor in the administration of the school system, county superintendents should be elected by the school officers of the respective counties."‡ His immediate successors emphasized this view. One of them complained of the elective method as associating the county superintendency "with the noisy strifes and chicaneries of party" and another declared that "the present elective system often puts a premium upon the unfaithful performance of duty. When continuance in office is altogether dependent upon popular will or upon political influence the strict and impartial performance of duty lies in a path beset with temptations, and if these are always resisted county superintendents must, indeed, be exempt from the common infirmities of human nature as seen at the present day."§ Again he says: "The question may very properly be asked, how ought the county superintendent of schools to be chosen? In determining this question it must not be

*First Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, 1855, p. 25.

†Second Biennial Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, 1857-58, pp. 29-30.

‡Fourth Biennial Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, 1861-2, p. 91.

§Eleventh Biennial Report Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, 1875-76, p. 426.

forgotten that the great object is to secure the best man—the man most competent and faithful—the man who will render the most valuable service. This being the object, the manner of selection should be determined by it. The duties of the office are not representative, judicial or executive, but supervisory and advisory. The duties of a county superintendent are essentially the same as those of the city or town superintendent; hence, his selection does not involve the right of representation any more than does the selection of a city superintendent. It is rather a question of wise selection on the one hand and of eligibility on the other.”*

Similar opinions have been expressed by the superintendents of other states. The superintendent of Texas for instance, in a paper read in the Department of Superintendence, N. E. A., 1907, said: “There is some debate as to the manner of electing the superintendent. It is maintained in some quarters that he should be elected by the direct vote of the people. This, in my judgment, is not the best way to select him, because it involves the expense of a campaign and not infrequently involves the schools in all manner of political broils. The office and the officer should be removed as far as possible from the evil effects and influences of partisan or personal politics, and should be put on a professional basis.” Discussing this paper, the superintendent of New Jersey remarked: “County superintendents should never be elected by popular vote.” The state superintendent of Kansas, in his report for 1905-6 (page 11), says: “The method of electing a county superintendent is wrong. * * * * The present system too frequently puts in the office of county superintendent those whose whole recommendation is that they have been loyal to the party to which they belong. The office is a professional one and should command the highest talent of the county.”

A legislative committee of the Minnesota Education Association, appointed in 1904, recommended the selection of county superintendents by a non-partisan county board of education to be selected from the various districts of the county, and this plan was heartily supported by the superintendent of public instruction.†

In a questionnaire on the certification of teachers, sent to the county superintendents of Iowa in 1908, the question was incidentally asked whether they regarded the method of electing county superintendents in vogue in that state (i. e. by the people) as the best method. Of seventy-eight answers received thirty-six were in the negative, thirty answered yes and twelve were doubtful. The superintendent of Indiana, a state in which county superintendents are elected by the trustees of schools, declares that the county superintendents of that state are unanimously opposed to election by the people.

*Eleventh Biennial Report Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, 1875-76, p. 426.

†Fourteenth Biennial Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Minnesota, p. 11.

In Wisconsin the question has been under consideration during the past two years by the State Teachers' Association and the County Superintendents' Convention. The state superintendent, in his report, declares that "the consensus of opinion seems to be that our present system of selecting county superintendents is radically wrong and should be changed." For more than forty years, he says, the method of election by the people has been in use in the state and has failed to make the county superintendency a professional position. Before the county superintendency can become a profession, he insists, there must be opportunity for permanence of tenure on the part of the superintendent and on the part of a county board by whom he should be selected the right to go beyond the limits of the state if necessary in order to secure the best possible service.*

Professor Cubberley, in an admirable discussion of the question under consideration, speaks at length of the desirability of removing the county superintendency as far as possible from political influence and opening up the field of rural supervision so that in time it may become as much of a profession as city supervision and the county board may seek anywhere for the most efficient superintendent. His remarks are worth quoting practically in full. "There is no more reason, educationally," he says, "why we should nominate a local Republican or local Democrat for county superintendent, and expect him to stump the county for election than that we should nominate a Republican or a Democrat from among the voters of a city and expect him to stump the city for election as a city superintendent, or a high school principal, or a grammar school principal. If it is right educationally to vote for one, then it is right to vote for the others; and if it is wrong to vote for one, then it is wrong to vote for the others. A county superintendent should be as much of an expert educational officer as a city superintendent, a county horticulturalist, a county entomologist or a county health officer. And the fact that this is not as thoroughly an established principle with the mass of educational men as it is with city superintendents and scientific men is due to the estimate we place upon the functions of the county superintendent * * * * County and rural supervision is today a closed field. There is no way to enter it purely on the basis of merit. More, it is a closed field to every man not a resident of the particular county and more or less politically inclined. Political affiliations, political availability, place of residence, and often the political dominance of one party or the other in the county—considerations which have no more to do with a man's ability to be an educational leader of the schools of the county than the church he belongs to, the age of his wife, the name of his baby or the size of shoes he wears, are considerations which, nevertheless, largely determine the selection of the county superintendent. In the process of nomination and renomination many accidents happen. A successful superintendent may be sure of re-

*Thirteenth Biennial Report, Department of Public Instruction, Wisconsin, 1906-8, pp. 17-18.

nomination, but fail through some eleven-hour trade made on the floor of the convention. Still more often he fails because his renomination would destroy a good geographical distribution of the ticket as a whole. If renominated, he may be defeated at the polls because of a Roosevelt or a Bryan landside which carries the other party into power all along the line. * * * * Perhaps he is defeated by some third-rate country school master, who puts up the plea that the county superintendent deals with the country schools and that, therefore, he should come from the country rather than the town. These are not hypothetical cases. The writer knows of at least two actual cases to illustrate each. These considerations are not educational ones, and education and politics cannot be mixed in any proportions whatsoever without harm to education. Certain fundamental propositions must be laid down with reference to county school supervision, and these must be insisted upon with emphasis. In the first place, it should offer a career for which a good man would be warranted in making a careful educational and professional preparation. In the second place, a man should be able to enter the work purely on the basis of merit and free from any unnecessary and irrelevant considerations. In the third place, the office in no sense exists to reward old and faithful teachers, and the position should never be awarded as a charity. In the fourth place, the educational functions of the position should be paramount and the clerical and legal functions purely secondary. We tend to emphasize the county office side of the position, and then to defend the bad features of the method of selection on this ground. But there is no argument here that cannot be made to apply with equal force to the work of a city superintendent. We cannot insist too strongly that the first business of the schools is the education of children, and that anything which fails to promote this to the maximum possible is to the extent that it fails a robbery of the child."

Enough has been advanced to show that the method of electing county superintendents presents a question upon which, to use the language of Sir Roger de Coverley, "much may be said on both sides." In considering any method of selection three questions naturally arise; first, which one of these methods will attract to the county superintendency the better class of superintendents; second, which will be more likely to select from these candidates the best ones fitted for the work; and third, which will make the tenure of office of the efficient superintendent the more secure.

THE TERM OF OFFICE.

In twenty-three states and two territories the county superintendent, or equivalent officer, is elected or appointed to serve two years. In thirteen states the term is four years, and in three states, three years. In South Dakota and Washington constitutional provisions prohibit the election of any person to the office of county superintendent of schools

for more than two terms in succession. In other parts of the country the same tenure, even of the best county superintendents, is brought about by the custom of rotation in office.

Such constitutional provisions and such a political practice with respect to the office of county superintendent are plainly detrimental to the best interests of the schools. The tenure of office of the efficient county superintendent should be long and secure. He is expected to formulate and direct the carrying out of the educational policy of the county. If he is a competent superintendent his plans of work will extend beyond two, three or even four years. To supplant him by the election of another superintendent merely "to pass the office around" is a species of educational imbecility which should be frowned upon by all who are interested in the welfare of the schools and of school children. It destroys the unity and the continuity of the school work of the county, and discourages professional preparation for the work of a county superintendent.

There is a wide difference between the county superintendency and the other county offices. Efficiency is, of course, as desirable in the one case as the other, but the duties devolving upon the county superintendent are peculiar. His work is not routine in character. He is expected to be an educational expert, a leader in all educational affairs. Special scholastic qualifications in him are desirable and are usually required. He is expected to study educational experiments in different parts of the country and to keep abreast of educational progress. Experience in the supervision of schools is an especially valuable asset. If he is the right man in the right place he will consequently be far better qualified for the work of supervision at the end of his term of office than he was at the beginning.

The interests of the schools, therefore, demand the retention in office of the competent superintendent. The prevalence of the two-year term makes it obvious that there is great opportunity for reform in the interests of the schools by increasing the tenure of office of the county superintendent.

SALARIES.

The salaries of county superintendents in the United State vary from less than one hundred dollars to seven thousand five hundred dollars. As a rule they vary much in the same state, for they depend upon the school population, or the total population, or some other variable basis. They are sometimes a percentage of the money received by the county superintendent or disbursed as, for instance, in Alabama and Mississippi; sometimes they are calculated on the basis of the school population as in Kansas and Nebraska; sometimes upon the total population of the counties as in Illinois. In Kentucky and Tennessee the amounts received by county superintendents are fixed by the county court. In Indiana they receive a per diem compensation of \$4.50 for time actually spent in the discharge of their duties. The highest salaries are paid in New Jersey. Every county superin-

tendent in that state receives a two thousand dollar salary and \$350.00 for traveling expenses. Salaries in California range from \$500.00 to \$4,800.00. Pennsylvania in some counties allows to the county superintendent a salary of \$2,000.00 and Colorado in a few counties \$2,800.00. Salaries in the souther states are, as a rule, extremely low. Yet in Alabama and Mississippi superintendents may receive \$1,800.00, in Kentucky and Texas \$1,500.00, and in Arkansas and South Carolina \$1,200.00. In Florida the maximum salary is \$200.00 per month, the average annual salary being in the years 1907 and 1908 \$1,129.46.

The following tabulation shows the compensation of the county superintendents in the various states as expressed by the school law in each:

Compensation of County Superintendents.

State.	Compensation.
Alabama.....	Four per cent on all state public moneys legally disbursed by them, not to exceed the sum of \$1,800 for any calendar year....
Arizona.....	\$1,500 annually in counties of the first class, and \$300 annually in all other counties, in all counties payable quarterly out of the county school fund.....
Arkansas.....	Each superintendent receives the same salary as the county judge of his county, but no superintendent's salary shall exceed \$1,200 per year nor in any case be less than \$600 a year. Salaries are paid out of the general school fund of the counties.....
California.....	Salaries are fixed by county boards and range from \$400 to \$4,000.
Colorado.....	For the purpose of fixing the amount of county superintendents' compensation the counties of the state are divided into seven classes with salaries as follows: \$2,800, \$2,000, \$1,200, \$1,100, \$800, \$500, \$100. In all but first and second class counties mileage not to exceed ten cents per mile for distance necessarily and actually traveled in the performance of duty may be allowed by the county commissioners, but such allowance must not exceed \$300 per annum.....
Delaware.....	\$1,000 per annum.....
Florida.....	Salaries are based upon the total annual receipts for school purposes in the county and range from \$600 to \$2,400 per annum....
Georgia.....	Such amount as may be allowed by the county board of education but not to exceed \$3.00 per day for time actually employed in the discharge of his official duties; paid out of the educational fund furnished to the county.....
Idaho.....	\$800 to \$1,200 as determined by the county board of commissioners.
Illinois.....	In counties containing a population not exceeding 25,000, \$1,250, in counties containing more than 25,000 and less than 100,000, \$1,650, exceeding 100,000, \$7,500.....
Indiana.....	\$4.50 per day for each day that he shall be employed in the actual performance of his duties.....
Iowa.....	\$1,250 per year, office expenses and expenses incurred in attendance upon meetings called by the superintendent of public instruction.....
Kansas.....	In counties of less than 1,000 school population \$3.00 for each day actually and necessarily employed in the discharge of his duties, for not to exceed 180 days in any one year; in counties having a school population of 1,000 and not more than 1,200, \$600 per annum; 1,200 to 1,500, \$700 per annum; more than 1,500, \$700 and \$20 per annum for each additional 1,000 such persons. No salary in such counties may exceed \$1,000. In counties having a population of more than 65,000 the salary is \$1,800. In counties having more than 100 school teachers employed exclusive of those employed in cities of the first and second class the county commissioners may add to the salary of \$1,000 the sum of \$200 per annum. All salaries are paid out of the county treasury.....
Kentucky.....	Not less than eight cents nor more than twenty cents for each pupil child reported in the census report of the sub-district trustee of the county, no child being enumerated who is under the city school superintendent of a city of the first, second, third or fourth class. No salary shall be less than \$400 nor greater than \$1,500.....

Compensation of County Superintendents—Continued.

State.	Compensation.
Louisiana.....	Fixed by the parish school board but in no case to be less than \$600 per annum.....
Maryland.....	Such compensation as the board of county school commissioners may direct.....
Michigan.....	Determined by the board of supervisors but shall not be less than \$500 per annum in counties containing 50 school rooms under his or her supervision; not less than \$1,000 where there are 100 school rooms under his supervision; and not less than \$1,200 where there are 125 school rooms under his supervision. No salary may exceed \$1,800 per annum. In estimating the number of school rooms in any county graded schools under a general charter are included.....
Minnesota.....	Fixed by the county board when not otherwise provided by special law, but may not be less than a sum equal to \$10 for each organized district in the county and not to exceed \$1,800 per year. Districts or parts of districts consolidated are counted the same as before the consolidation was made. The county board may allow \$250 per year for traveling expenses.....
Mississippi.....	Five per cent of school fund received by county, but may be fixed by the board of supervisors at an amount between \$1,200 and \$1,800.....
Missouri.....	In counties of less than 12,000 population \$700; 12,000 to 15,000, \$800; 15,000 to 18,000, \$900; 18,000 to 21,000, \$1,000; 21,000 to 24,000, \$1,100; 24,000 to 27,000, \$1,200; 27,000 to 30,000, \$1,300; 30,000 to 50,000, \$1,400; 50,000 or more, \$1,500; \$400 is appropriated to each county out of the general revenue fund of the state and the remainder of the county superintendent's salary is paid out of the county treasury.....
Montana.....	Based on classification of counties determined by valuation of property. There are eight classes and salaries range from \$800 to \$2,000.....
Nebraska.....	Determined by county commissioners on a basis of school population; 4,000 population or more, not less than \$1,200; 2,500 to 4,000, \$1,000; 1,500 to 2,500, \$800; less than 2,500 a per diem of not less than \$4.00 nor more than \$5.00 for each day actually employed in the duties of his office, but the total compensation in this class shall not exceed \$800 per annum.....
New Jersey.....	\$2,000 per annum, payable from the state treasury, and traveling expenses not to exceed \$350.....
New Mexico.....	Based on the number of school rooms under the jurisdiction of the county superintendent; 10 school rooms or less, \$300; 11 to 16, \$600; 17 to 25, \$800; 26 to 33, \$1,000; 34 to 42, \$1,200; 43 or more \$1,500. A salary, however, may not exceed one-third of the total amount of money collected from the tax levy for general school purposes.....
New York.....	\$1,000, payable out of the free school fund appropriated for this purpose, but may be increased by a majority of the supervisors from the towns composing a school commissioner's district, the increase being assessed upon the towns.....
N. Carolina.....	Fixed by the county board of education but must not be less than \$3.00 per day for time spent in the service of the public schools and may not exceed four per cent of the disbursements for schools under his supervision.....
N. Dakota.....	Determined by the number of schools; 1 to 5, \$150; 6 to 10, \$300; 11 to 15, \$400; 16 to 20, \$500; 21 to 25, \$600; 26 to 30, \$700; 31 to 35, \$800; 36 to 40, \$900; 41 to 50, \$1,000; and \$10 for each additional school except when the number exceeds 130 in which case \$5.00 for each additional school is allowed. Mileage of ten cents per mile is also allowed.....
Oklahoma.....	Determined by school population. In counties of 1,000 to 1,500, \$480; 1,500 or more, \$600 per annum and \$18 for each additional 1,000 persons; in counties having a school population of less than 1,000 the county superintendent shall receive \$3.60 for each day employed in the discharge of his duties for a number of days not to exceed 100 in any one year. No salary may exceed \$1,000 per annum and in determining salaries the school population of cities of the first and second class is not included.....
Oregon.....	The salaries of each county are fixed by law and are payable in the same manner as the salaries of other county officers.....

Compensation of County Superintendents—Concluded.

State.	Compensation.
Pennsylvania.....	Based on the number of schools within the county superintendent's jurisdiction; 100 schools or less, \$10 per school; \$5.00 for each school above 100 and not over 200 and \$2.00 each for each school above 200; salaries may not be less than \$1,000 nor more than \$2,000 per annum. In counties having 1,200 school miles of territory, or a school term exceeding seven and one-half months the salaries of county superintendents shall not be less than \$1,500. School directors may increase salaries, the increase being taken out of the school fund appropriated for the county.....
S. Carolina.....	The salaries in the various counties are fixed by law for each county separately and range from \$300 to \$1,200.....
S. Dakota.....	Determined by the value of the property in the respective counties as fixed by the state board of equalization, and by the population of the counties. He receives one mill on each dollar of the first \$100,000; \$100,000 to \$600,000, three-eighths of one mill; \$600,000 to \$1,100,000, one-fourth of one mill; \$1,100,000 to \$2,600,000, one-tenth of one mill; above \$2,600,000, one-twentieth of one mill. In addition he is allowed \$75 for the first 1,000 inhabitants and for each additional 1,000 or major fraction thereof, \$50. No salary may exceed \$1,500.....
Tennessee.....	Fixed by county court.....
Texas.....	Based upon school population including independent school districts; 2,000 or less, \$900; 2,000 to 3,000, \$1,100; 3,000 to 4,000, \$1,300; 4,000 to 5,000, \$1,400; 5,000 and above, \$1,500.....
Utah.....	Counties are divided into fifteen classes and maximum salaries ranging from \$500 to \$1,600 are determined by the assessed valuation of the property of the respective counties. Actual salaries are determined by the board of county commissioners.....
Vermont.....	A per diem of \$4.00 and expenses not to exceed \$2.00 per day.....
Virginia.....	Based on population and payable out of the state school fund; 10,000 or less, \$40 per thousand; 10,000 to 30,000, \$25; exceeding 30,000 \$15; fractions less than 500 are rejected in calculating the compensation of a county superintendent which may not in any case be less than \$200 per annum.....
Washington.....	Salaries are determined by the general law and range from \$400 to \$2,000.....
W. Virginia.....	Determined by number of schools; not more than 50 schools, \$500; 50 to 75, \$575; 75 to 100, \$650; 100 to 125, \$725; and \$2.00 for each additional school. The county superintendent is allowed additional compensation for conducting examinations but in no case shall the salary exceed \$1,200.....
Wisconsin.....	Fixed by the county board of supervisors and based on population, cities under the supervision of city superintendents of schools being excluded; 5,000 to 9,000, not less than \$500; and not less than \$900 in county or superintendent districts containing more than 9,000 inhabitants. Expenses incurred in attending conventions called by the state superintendent are allowed.....
Wyoming.....	Based upon population, there being four classes of counties with salaries ranging from \$500 to \$900. Traveling expenses are allowed.....

It will be observed that there is among the states a wide variation in the method of determining the salaries of county superintendents. Sometimes they are fixed arbitrarily, sometimes they are based on school or census population, sometimes by the amount of school funds disbursed, sometimes by the number of schools supervised and sometimes by the area of the county.

In few states has there been any attempt to place the compensation of county superintendents on a strictly educational basis. Michigan, Minnesota, New Mexico, South Dakota and West Virginia relate compensation to the number of schools supervised, but no state has yet adopted a scale of salaries with the idea of increasing thereby the efficiency of the county superintendent in the work of supervision. This

might be done by basing compensation upon the educational results achieved. These can be determined only approximately, but so far as they can be determined with some degree of accuracy they should be made to bear some relation to the amount paid the county superintendent.

In the earlier period of the state's development when the work of a superintendent does not require all his time, there is justification for compensation on the ground of moneys disbursed, population and the area of the county, for the reason that these determine to some extent the quantity of his work. In few, if any of these states, however, is the work of a county superintendent now determined either by the area of his county, the money disbursed or the number of people who happen to live in it. If he is conscientious he gives all his time to the performance of his duties, whether his county be large or small, whether it contains 25,000 or 50,000 persons, or whether the money which passes through his hands is much or little. The time element, therefore, is the same with all. If the area or population of his county increases, thus bringing a larger number of schools under his supervision, or greater financial duties devolve upon him, a demand is thereby created, not for an increase in salary, but for the employment of an assistant. A county superintendent's salary should not be increased merely because the work required of him becomes greater than he can adequately perform. For these reasons neither area nor population nor money disbursed is a wholly satisfactory basis upon which the salaries of county superintendents should be determined.

The determination of salaries by the number of schools supervised is also objectionable from the educational standpoint. Such a basis tends to discourage the consolidation of schools unless, as in Minnesota, districts consolidated are counted the same as before. But in any case this method of fixing the salary of a county superintendent implies that he has nothing to do with the graded schools or schools employing a superintendent independently. Under such a method of determining his salary the county superintendent can not rightly be regarded as the head of the school system of the county and this it would seem is his proper place in a well articulated state system of education.

Setting these methods aside, then, as objectionable from an educational point of view, let us see whether there is not a simple method of classification which if adopted would stimulate the superintendent to increased efficiency in his work.

Given counties of equal area and population, the time spent by their respective superintendents in the performance of their duties, we may assume, will be the same. The time element being the same in each case, and the quantity of work required being also the same, the element of quality should be the determining factor in the matter of fixing their compensation.

Now when the quality of a county superintendent's work is taken into account it will be seen that it depends upon the degree of his interest in the schools and the intelligence and skill he manifests in their super-

vision. The degree of this interest, intelligence and skill will be determined in some measure by the results of his efforts. These results are manifested in many ways, but in none more tangibly perhaps than the average length of school term in the schools of his county, the number of children enrolled in the schools and the regularity of their attendance. These manifestations of school interest and activity are best and most simply expressed, perhaps, by the total aggregate days of attendance upon the schools of his county. If the amount of the State fund apportioned to the county superintendent in payment of his salary were made to bear some relation to the aggregate days attendance upon the schools of his county it would put a premium upon the intelligence and skill devoted to increasing the school interest, the enrollment, the average attendance and the length of the school term in his county. The basis of aggregate attendance, therefore, being approximately just and at the same time encouraging all the activities of a county superintendent which make him efficient, is the basis upon which his salary should be determined.

It is obvious, however, that the county superintendent does not have as much to do with increasing the attendance upon city schools as with the increase in attendance upon country schools and the smaller graded schools. In reckoning the increase of a county superintendent's salary, therefore, the same allowance should not be made for increased attendance upon schools having independent supervision that should be allowed for increase upon rural schools.

On the basis here proposed with a minimum salary of \$1,350.00 the salaries of all county superintendents in the State except two would be increased on the average about three hundred dollars. The exceptions are Randolph and White counties, in which counties the salaries would remain the same.

The peculiar advantages of determining salaries on the basis of units of attendance are, as has already been suggested, the following: In the first place it would put a premium on every device employed by the county superintendent to increase the enrollment of the schools, the average attendance and the length of term. As these depend upon an awakening of general interest and the improvement of school conditions it would offer an incentive to the county superintendent in all forms of activity which increase his efficiency as a superintendent. In the second place it would make the increase in a county superintendent's salary dependent upon an increase in total days attendance and not upon the will of the Legislature. That is to say, the salaries of county superintendents would adjust themselves automatically.

The most obvious objection to such classification is that the statistics upon which the computations would necessarily be based are inaccurate. But this is a reflection upon the present and past methods of collecting statistics. The question is not whether statistics are accurate now, but whether they can be made accurate in the future. Certainly they ought to be made so and if the plan of classification proposed would contribute to that end it is a point in its favor. But it may be said that county superintendents would pad their reports, or connive at it, to increase

their compensation. This could be prevented, or at all events the danger could be minimized, by requiring affidavits both to teachers' schedules and to county superintendents' reports. It would not be a bad thing if this were done now in order to secure accuracy. It does not seem that the padding of reports of attendance would be greater than the present padding of census reports. The padding of the census is not easy to discover. Almost all of the states have experienced more or less difficulty with respect to the census reports, and "New Jersey was finally led to abandon its census entirely in 1901 because of evident and repeated inaccuracies in the school census."*

In the matter of administration the proposed plan is simple. Statistics of attendance in graded and ungraded schools are now annually required in all the states and received in the office of the superintendent of public instruction. It would be a very simple matter to arrange for a third column in the report showing total attendance or units of attendance which might be calculated for each county by adding to the total attendance in ungraded schools one-half the total attendance in graded schools. From this third column it could be seen at a glance the salary to which a county superintendent would be entitled. A statement of these salaries would be sent to the auditor whose warrants could be issued upon it without any more work or trouble than that which is required by the present system. There can be no serious objection then from the standpoint of administration to the plan of determining county superintendents' salaries on a basis of units of attendance.

This, of course, is more or less theoretical. The practical situation in Illinois seemed to the commission to require a reclassification of the salaries of county superintendents on the basis of the census population of 1900. Accordingly the following bill was introduced:

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the People of the State of Illinois represented in the General Assembly:* That section 27 of an Act entitled, "An Act concerning fees and salaries, and to classify the counties of this State with reference thereto," approved March 29, 1872, in force July 1, 1872, title as amended by Act approved March 28, 1874, in force July 1, 1874, and amended May 17, 1905, be and the same is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

Section 27. County superintendents elected hereafter shall receive for their services in counties which, according to the census of 1900, contained a population not exceeding 12,000, \$1,250 per annum; in counties which, according to the census of 1900, contained a population of more than 12,000 and not exceeding 20,000, \$1,500 per annum; in counties which, according to the census of 1900, contained a population of more than 20,000 and not exceeding 28,000, \$1,800 per annum; in counties which, according to the census of 1900, contained a population of more than 28,000 and not exceeding 36,000, \$2,000 per annum; in counties which, according to the census of 1900, contained a population of more than 36,000 and not exceeding 50,000, \$2,250 per annum; in counties which, according to the census of 1900, contained a population of more than 50,000 and not exceeding 75,000, \$2,500 per annum; in counties which, according to the census of 1900, contained a population of more than 75,000 and not exceeding 100,000, \$2,750 per annum, and in counties which, according to the census of 1900, contained a population of more than 100,000, \$7,500 per annum, payable quarterly from the State School Fund: *Provided, however,* that the board of supervisors or board of county commissioners may allow additional compensation for

*School Funds and Their Apportionment, Cubberley, p. 120.

such services, payable quarterly from the county treasury. The Auditor in making his warrant to any county for the amount due it from the State School Fund, shall deduct from it, the several amounts for which warrants have been issued to the county superintendent of said county, since the preceding apportionment of the State School Fund.

POWERS AND DUTIES.

The powers and duties of county educational officers in the different states vary widely. In one of the states they are suggested by the name of the officer which is county examiner. In Virginia the duties of a division superintendent are fixed by the state board of education. In seventeen states the examination of teachers and the granting of certificates is a duty assigned to the county official. In two of these states, namely, California and Montana, the power is limited to the issue of temporary certificates, and in South Dakota the certifying power is exercised in conjunction with the state superintendent. In New York the district commissioner is authorized to examine teachers "under such rules and regulations as have been or may be prescribed" by the commissioner of education. The visitation of schools is a function which would seem to be essential to effective supervision. Still this duty is not always required of county superintendents, nor is the duty of conducting institutes and other forms of teachers' meetings always required.

The wide range of the powers and duties of county superintendents is well represented by those which attach to the office of county superintendent in Illinois. In this State the chief powers and duties of the county superintendent are as follows: To examine and approve the bond of the township treasurer; to employ a competent person to take the census enumeration and furnish the statistical statement required of trustees of schools when this duty is neglected by them; to report to the superintendent of public instruction; to report to the county board of supervisors; to apportion the school fund to the several townships or parts of townships in his county in which schools have been kept; to execute a new bond upon notice by the county board; to sell township fund lands; to issue certificates of purchase and report to the county board and state auditor; to register the names of applicants for normal school and university scholarships, and to hold or cause to be held examinations for the same; to visit each school in the county at least once a year; to give teachers and school officers such directions in the science, art and method of teaching and in regard to courses of study as he may deem expedient; to act as the official adviser and constant assistant of the school officers and teachers of his county; to conduct a teachers' institute and to attend and encourage the formation of other teachers' meetings and to assist in their management; to labor in every practicable way to elevate the standard of teaching and improve the condition of common schools in his county; to examine at least once each year all books, accounts and vouchers of every township treasurer in his county; to examine all notes, bonds, mortgages and other evidences of indebtedness which the township treasurer holds

officially; to give notice in certain cases of the election of trustees, of any regular or special election and of the election of school directors; to investigate and determine all matters pertaining to changes in the boundaries of school districts which may come to him by appeal from the decision of the trustees of schools; to hold meetings at least quarterly for the examination of teachers and to grant certificates to such persons as may be qualified to receive them; to require township trustees to report; to direct in what manner township treasurers shall keep their books and accounts; to bring suit against the county collector for failure to pay the amount due on the auditor's warrant; to remove any school director from office for wilful failure to perform his duties and to employ, with the approval of the county board, such assistant or assistants as he needs for the full discharge of his duties.

The powers and duties of county and division superintendents of schools, of county and district commissioners of schools and of county examiners are set forth in the following table:

TABLE II.

Showing the Manner of Election, Term, Salary and Most Important Powers and Duties of County Superintendents in the United States.

State.	Elections.	Term.	Salary.	Powers and Duties.
Alabama.....	By people	4	4 per cent on state moneys disbursed, not to exceed \$1800.....	1. To receive and disburse county funds. 2. To notify district trustees of amount apportioned each district. 3. To keep record of amount received and paid out by him. 4. To furnish State superintendent annual report. 5. To pay teachers monthly. 6. To act as general executive school officer of the county..
Arizona.....	By people in counties of 1st class. In others probate judge acts	2	\$1500 in counties of 1st class; \$300 in others and traveling expenses not to exceed \$250.....	1. To apportion school money. 2. To draw warrant on county treasurer for necessary expenses. 3. To preside over institutes. 4. To conduct examinations. 5. To distribute laws to schools officers. 6. To keep record of his official acts. 7. To appoint trustees to fill vacancies. 8. To visit each school twice a year. 9. To require trustees to repair school buildings. 10. To grade schools

Table 2—Continued.

State.	Election.	Term.	Salary.	Powers and Duties.
Arkansas	By people	2	\$600-\$1200.....	1. To examine and license teachers. 2. To issue certificates. 3. To keep record of age, name, sex, address and nativity of persons granted certificates. 4. To superintend schools. 5. To appoint persons to assist in holding institutes and examinations. 6. To report annually to State superintendent
California.....	By people	4	\$500-\$4800.....	1. To apportion county funds. 2. To suspend school if average daily attendance is five or less. 3. To determine indebtedness of lapsed districts and draw requisition upon county auditor in payment of same. 4. To visit each school once a year. 5. To preside over institutes. 6. To grant temporary certificates. 7. To approve and reject plans for school houses. 8. To grade each school. 9. To appoint trustees to fill vacancies.....
Colorado	By people	2	\$100-\$2800.....	1. To visit schools. 2. To examine accounts of district officers. 3. To keep record of his official acts. 4. To hold teachers' associations. 5. To publish annually statement of school funds apportioned to the county. 6. To appoint directors when district fails to elect. 7. To grant certificates.
Deleware.....	Appointed by governor	2	\$1,000.....	1. To advise and assist teachers. 2. To promote knowledge of schools and school system. 3. To visit each school once a year. 4. To report to county school commissioner and to state board. 5. To suspend certificates. 6. To frame examination questions and compile list of text books when requested by State board. 7. To examine teachers.....
Florida.....	By people	4	\$50-\$200 per month based on annual receipts of county.....	1. To visit schools. 2. To confer with school supervisors. 3. To look after school buildings and funds. 4. To hold examinations and grant certificates. 5. To revoke certificates. 6. To suspend or close schools. 7. To recommend removal of teachers to Board of Public Instruction. 9. To take school census.....

Table 2—Continued.

State.	Election.	Term.	Salary.	Powers and Duties.
Georgia.....	By county board of education.....	4	Fixed by county board; not to exceed \$3.00 a day for time actually employed in discharge of duties.	1. To visit each school once during school term. 2. To audit all accounts of teachers. 3. To report to grand jury at each spring term of court. 4. To make monthly statements to State school commissioner. 5. To be secretary of county board
Idaho.....	By people	2	\$800-\$1200, fixed by county board of commissioners..	1. To visit each school during each school term and remain at least a half day. 2. To require school trustees to repair school property. 3. To ascertain whether boundaries of district are definitely described and report to county commissioners if they are incorrectly described. 4. To grant and revoke certificates. 5. To appoint trustees for newly organized school vacancies
Illinois.....	By people	4	*In counties of 1st class \$1200, 2d class \$1650, 3d class \$7500.....	1. To sell township fund lands. 2. To register applicants for admission to Normal University and University of Illinois. 3. To visit each school in county once a year. 4. To conduct institutes. 5. To pass on boundary disputes appealed from trustees. 6. To grant and revoke certificates. 7. To require reports from board of trustees. 8. To renew certificates. 9. To remove directors for neglect of duty
Indiana.....	By township trustees.....	4	\$4.50 per day for time employed in discharge of duties.....	1. To attend township institutes. 2. To conduct institutes. 3. To decide controversies arising under school law. 4. To see that interest on school fund is paid and apportioned. 5. To hold examinations. 6. To grant and revoke certificates. 7. To visit schools....
Iowa	By people	2	\$1250 and traveling expenses.....	1. To conduct examinations. 2. To revoke certificates. 3. To report annually to State superintendent. 4. To see that school laws are obeyed. 5. To decide controversies.....

*Counties are classified on the basis of population. Counties containing a population of not exceeding twenty-five thousand inhabitants are counties of the first class. Counties of the second class contain a population of more than twenty-five thousand and less than one hundred thousand. Counties containing a population exceeding one hundred thousand belong to the third class. There is but one county in this class, namely, Cook county.

Table 2—Continued.

State.	Election.	Term.	Salary.	Powers and Duties.
Kansas.....	By people	2	In proportion to school population; not to exceed \$1000.....	1. To visit each school once each term of 6 months. 2. To examine accounts of district officers. 3. To hold annual meetings in each district to elevate standard of education. 5. To keep complete record of his official acts. 6. To keep record of semi-annual state and county apportioned school funds. 7. To apportion county fund. 8. To report annually to State superintendent.....
Mississippi...	By people	4	5 percent of school fund received by county. Minimum, \$800; maximum, \$18.0*.....	1. To keep record of official acts. 2. To conform manner of keeping reports to recommendations of State superintendent. 3. To preserve all reports of school officers.....
Missouri.....	By people	2	\$200-\$1500, depending on school population.....	1. To forward necessary blanks to school officers. 2. To organize institutes and require teachers to attend. 3. To formulate course of study and plan for grading schools in county. 4. To hold examinations. 5. To visit and inspect schools
Montana.....	By people	2	Counties of 1st class, \$2000; 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th classes, \$1500; 6th class, \$1200; 7th class, \$900; 8th class, \$600. Classification is on basis of valuation.....	1. To have general supervision of schools and visit each once a year. 2. To keep record of his official acts. 3. To decide matters of controversy relating to school law. 4. To ascertain whether district boundaries are definitely described. 5. To apportion county funds. 6. To issue certificates valid until next regular examination

*The board of supervisors may fix the salary at an amount between \$1,200 and \$1,800. The average salary is \$1,128.90.

Table 2—Continued.

State.	Election.	Term.	Salary.	Powers and Duties.
Nebraska	By people	2	Fixed by county commissioners in proportion to school population, \$800-\$1200.....	1. To visit each school once a year. 2. To hold examinations and grant certificates. 3. To examine reports of district boards. 4. To report annually to State superintendent. 5. To act as executive officer for free high school law.....
New Jersey...	By state board of education.	3	\$2000.....	1. To supervise schools of county. 2. To apportion school money. 3. To appoint members of board of education in certain cases. 4. To report annually to State superintendent. 5. To condemn school buildings
New Mexico..	By people	2	\$300-\$1500, depending on number of school rooms in county.....	1. To supervise methods of instruction. 2. To consult school directors concerning improvement of schools. 3. To organize, disorganize, or change boundaries of any district. 4. To hold teachers' meetings. 5. To apportion county funds.
New York	By people	3	\$1000.....	1. To visit and examine schools. 2. To order alterations and repairs of school houses. 3. To condemn school houses. 4. To examine teachers in certain cases
N. Carolina...	By county board of education	1	Fixed by county board.....	1. To hold teachers' meetings in each township. 2. To attend State Teachers' Association. 3. To report annually to State superintendent. 4. To suspend teachers.....
North Dakota.	By people	2	From \$150 up, depending on number of schools.....	1. To advise teachers. 2. To carry into effect instructions of State superintendent. 3. To convene teachers once a month. 4. To instruct school officers in keeping records. 5. To decide questions of controversy. 6. To apportion county fund. 7. To revoke certificates
Oklahoma	By people	2	*.....	1. To see that annual reports of clerks are correctly made. 2. To fill vacancies in board of directors. 3. To furnish county clerks with description of boundary of each district. 4. To divide county into convenient number of districts..

*In counties of less than 1,000 school population, \$3.00 per day for time spent in discharge of duties. In counties of 1,000 to 1,500 school population, \$400. In counties of 1,500 school population, \$500 and \$15 for each additional one hundred.

Table 2—Continued.

State.	Election.	Term.	Salary.	Powers and Duties.
Oregon	By people	4	\$300-\$2500	1. To visit schools annually. 2. To apportion county fund. 3. To purchase library books with assistance of directors. 4. To appoint librarian. 5. To enforce course of study. 6. To decide appeals.....
Pennsylvania.	By directors...	2	\$1000-\$2000	1. To visit schools. 2. To grant and annul certificates. 3. To call teachers' institutes.....
South Carolina	By people	2	\$300-\$1200	1. To visit schools annually. 2. To attend annual settlement of county treasurer with Comptroller General. 3. To report annually to county judge all claims filed, audited, allowed and ordered. 4. To report annually to county treasurer
South Dakota.	By people	2	Fixed by law and based on population and assessed valuation.	1. To keep record of official acts. 2. To keep a record of candidates for certificates. 3. To apportion county fund. 4. To hold institutes. 5. To encourage formation of Teachers' Reading Circle. 6. To close school for good and sufficient cause. 7. To grant and revoke certificates in conjunction with State superintendent
Tennessee....	By county court.....	2	Fixed by county court.....	1. To supervise schools. 2. To confer with teachers and directors. 3. To hold examinations and issue certificates. 4. To grade schools.....
Texas	By people. In certain cases county judge acts <i>ex officio</i>	2	\$900-\$1500	1. To confer with teachers and trustees. 2. To organize and hold institutes for white and colored teachers. 3. To examine all contracts between trustees and teachers. 4. To appoint county board of examiners
Utah	By people	2	\$500-\$1600	1. To superintend county schools. 2. To decide controversies. 3. To administer oath of office to school officers. 4. To hold institutes. 5. To appoint a deputy.....

Table 2—Continued.

State.	Election.	Term.	Salary.	Powers and Duties.
Vermont	By governor and superintendent	2	\$4.00 per day and expenses not to exceed \$2.00 per day	1. To make necessary arrangements for teachers' institutes. 2. To take measures to secure attendance at institutes, to give assistance and furnish such statistical information as may be required. 3. To issue certificates
Virginia	Appointed by state board of education	4	\$200-\$500	1. To register applicants for certificates. 2. To make special reports to the Superintendent of Public Instruction. 3. To inspect the record and account books of district clerks. 4. To prepare a scheme for apportioning state and county school funds among the school districts within each county under his supervision. 5. To affect arrangements for the supply of text books to children. 6. To hear appeals. 7. To visit schools. 8. To assist in the organization and management of county institutes. 9. To keep a record of his official acts
Washington ..	By people	2	Maximum, \$500 ..	1. To enforce course of study. 2. To administer oath of office to school officers. 3. To keep transcript of school boundaries. 4. To grant temporary and special certificates. 5. To suspend teachers. 6. To visit schools of county once a year. 7. To appoint school officers to fill vacancies. 8. To apportion school funds. 9. To hold teachers' institutes..
West Virginia	By people	4	\$500-\$1200, in proportion to number of schools ..	1. To decide appeals. 2. To countersign certificates. 3. To decide location of school house when school board disagree. 4. To report annually to State superintendent. 5. To visit schools annually
Wisconsin	By people	2	Fixed by county board with maximum depending on population	1. To visit schools annually. 2. To report annually to county board of supervisors. 3. To organize and conduct institutes. 4. To order district board to repair school buildings. 5. To examine and license teachers

Table 2 —Concluded.

State.	Election.	Term.	Salary.	Powers and Duties.
Wyoming	By people....	2	\$500-\$800.....	1. To report annually to State superintendent. 2. To distribute blanks to districts. 3. To divide county into districts and to alter and change boundaries. 4. To conduct examinations. 5. To dismiss teachers. 6. To hear and determine appeals of district boards. 7. To hold institutes. 8. To apportion county funds.

QUALIFICATIONS.

Twenty-three of the forty-eight states and territories require of county superintendents and examiners special educational qualifications, usually a first grade certificate. It would naturally be expected that in those states in which the county official certificates teachers scholastic qualifications would be required, but of the seventeen states in which this power is exercised five, namely, Colorado, Illinois, Maryland, New York and Vermont, make no requirements whatever. In California, although the county superintendent may in certain cases grant temporary certificates and is a member of the county board which examines teachers and grants certificates, no scholastic qualifications are required of him by law. In Tennessee he is required to possess literary and scientific attainments and skill in the practice of teaching. In New Jersey a state certificate is required, and it will be remembered that this is the state in which county superintendents receive the highest compensation. North Dakota requires its superintendents in counties in which the salary is one thousand dollars or more to hold a state certificate of the first grade or to be a graduate of a reputable normal school or higher institution of learning. Superintendents in Indiana must have, at the time of their election, a thirty-six months state license, a life license or a professional license. In Wisconsin a special county superintendent's certificate is provided for. Its requirements are the same as for a first grade county certificate and in addition an examination upon school law and the organization, management and supervision of district schools. This certificate, together with eight months' experience in teaching in the public schools of Wisconsin, constitutes a legal qualification to hold the office of county superintendent of schools or to teach in any public school in the state for which a first grade county certificate is a legal qualification. The certificate remains in force until revoked by the state superintendent according to law. Five states, while requiring no specific educational qualifications on the part of the county superintendent, do make some provision general in its nature. Florida, for instance, requires only that the superintendent be "in full sympathy with the public educational system of the State." Ten states require experience in teaching. The lowest requirement

is eight months. Several of the states require two years. Thirteen states make no provision in regard to the educational qualifications for those who are to supervise their rural schools. The following table will show the educational qualifications of county superintendents or equivalent officials in all the states in which such qualifications are required:

TABLE III.

Showing the Qualifications of the County Superintendents (or Equivalent Officers) Required in the Several States.

State.	Qualifications.
Arkansas	1. Must have attained the age of 25 years, must have taught at least twenty-four months in the county within five years preceding his candidacy, and must hold at the time of his candidacy a first grade teacher's license, to be approved by the State superintendent, a professional teacher's license, or a State teacher's license
Delaware	1. Must possess good moral character. 2. Must have had at least 20 months' experience in teaching. 3. Must hold certificate of graduation from some reputable college or normal school, or an unexpired certificate of the highest grade granted to teachers in this State. 4. Must become a resident of the county for which he is appointed and must reside therein during his term of office
Florida	1. To possess good moral character. 2. To be temperate, upright, responsible, competent and in full sympathy with public educational system of the State.
Georgia	1. To be examined by president of county board. 2. To stand satisfactory examination, taking into consideration moral character and business qualifications.
Idaho	1. To hold first grade certificate. 2. To have taught two years in Idaho, one of which while holding first grade certificate. 3. To be 25 years of age.
Indiana	1. To hold at time of election a thirty-six months' state license, a life or a professional license.
Iowa	1. To hold first grade certificate, a state certificate or a life diploma.
Kansas	1. To hold professional certificate, a first grade certificate or a state certificate or be a graduate of an accredited college or normal school. 2. To have taught 18 months.
Kentucky	1. To possess good moral character. 2. To possess ability to manage common school interests efficiently. 3. To possess good English education. 4. To be 24 years of age. 5. To be a citizen of Kentucky. 6. To have resided two years next preceding election in this State, and one year in county for which he is a candidate. 7. To hold state diploma or a state certificate or a certificate of qualification of grade of first-class county certificate.
Louisiana	1. To possess high moral character and be a practical educator...
Michigan	1. To have had 12 months' experience. 2. To be a graduate of college, university or state normal school, or hold state certificate, or hold first grade certificate which only qualifies the holder to hold office of commissioner in county in which such certificate is granted.
Mississippi	1. To be 21 years of age. 2. To be a qualified elector and a resident citizen of state four years and of county two years preceding his election. 3. To pass an examination on branches required for first grade license and in addition on the art of teaching
Missouri	1. To be 21 years of age. 2. To have resided in county at least one year prior to election. 3. To hold first grade county certificate, normal or State certificate.
Montana	1. To hold highest grade county certificate. 2. To be a citizen of the United States. 3. To have resided one year in state and one year in county in which he is a candidate. 4. To have 12 months' successful experience in teaching.
Nebraska	1. To hold first grade certificate in this state and in force at time of his election.
New Jersey	1. To hold state teacher's certificate.
New Mexico	1. To possess culture and practical experience and learning in those branches of education taught in the public schools.

Table 3—Concluded.

State.	Qualifications.
North Carolina ..	1. To be a practical teacher. 2. To have two years' experience in teaching. 3. To be a man of liberal education and to be otherwise qualified to discharge the duties of his office.....
North Dakota.....	1. To be 25 years of age. 2. To hold highest grade state certificate or to be a graduate of some reputable university, college or normal school.....
Oklahoma	1. To hold first grade certificate or be a graduate of some institution of learning.....
Oregon	1. To have taught in state nine months. 2. To hold first grade county certificate, a state diploma or a state certificate.....
Pennsylvania.....	1. To possess diploma or state certificate from college or state normal school, a county certificate issued one year prior to election or a certificate of competency from the state superintendent. 2. To have had successful experience in teaching within three years of his election.....
South Dakota.....	1. To hold first grade certificate or certificate of higher grade valid in South Dakota.....
Tennessee	1. To possess literary and scientific attainments and skill in the theory and practice of teaching.....
Texas	1. To hold first grade permanent certificate. 2. To possess good moral character and executive ability.....
Utah	1. To hold certificate not lower than grammar grade. 2. To be qualified elector in county.....
Washington	1. To have taught nine months. 2. To hold state certificate or life diploma or first grade common school certificate.....
Wisconsin	1. To have taught in state eight months. 2. To hold county certificate

The following states have no county superintendents: Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Nevada, New Hampshire, Ohio, Rhode Island.

The following states provide no qualifications: Alabama, Arizona, California, Colorado, Illinois, Maryland, Minnesota, New York, South Carolina, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia and Wyoming.

There can be no doubt that the tendency is towards higher standards of qualification for county superintendents. This tendency is manifested in the recommendations of state superintendents and legislative committees. The legislative committee of the Louisiana School Board Association, for instance, at a meeting held April 10, 1908, recommended that "hereafter no person may be appointed to the office of parish superintendent of education without first having obtained, under regulations prescribed by the State Board of Education, a certificate of eligibility or qualification for that office." The arguments advanced in favor of this recommendation are that it is the most important office in the educational system; it should be removed as far as possible from political influence and should be made a strictly professional position. Such recommendations are but the visible signs of a general movement in educational thought. "In a general way," says Prof. Cubberley, "it may be said that educational opinion has crystallized on the idea that the certification of teachers should be in the hands of professional teachers instead of laymen, and that a county superintendent, or other certifying authority, should be possessed of at least the highest grade of certificate which is issued by him. This is all very good as far as it goes, but is entirely inadequate to meet the needs of present-day education. Such a system brings to the front only the old and successful practitioner, while what we need is the man who, in

addition to successful practice, has secured a broad education and made a careful study of school administration and educational theory as well. There is no particular fault to be found with the present body of county superintendents as such. They are good enough in their way, and are the best the present system can produce. The trouble, however, is with the system. It produces the successful practitioner who has learned largely by experience and imitation, and not the educational leader who works, partly in the light of his past experience, but largely in the light of the best educational theory there is on the subject. Too often our superintendents work without any guiding theory of consequence, with the result that their educational work is traditional work and highly conservative, and their main services clerical rather than supervisory, in any broad educational sense of the term. Such work and conditions will not meet the needs of the future in a nation where the changes in the conditions of living, and the consequent modifications of an educational system to meet changed conditions, are taking place as rapidly as they are with us at present. Everywhere our rural schools are calling for leadership and close educational supervision of a new order; but little can be done to answer this call until some important changes are made in our methods of selecting supervisory officers, and the number of these is largely increased. In the judgment of the writer, two fundamental changes ought to be made in our method of selecting men for supervisory positions. Both are of fundamental importance. The first is the erection of a distinctly higher educational and professional standard for supervisors; and the second is the elimination of the county superintendency from politics, making it an appointive office, with the selection made wholly on the basis of educational ability.”*

In the brief description of the development of the county superintendency in Illinois it was seen that originally the duties of the office were merely those involved in the advertisement and sale of public lands and the loaning of money. Educational duties were assigned later and somewhat gradually. It is not surprising, then, that at the beginning no educational requirements for school commissioner were required. The duties of the office were such as any man with ordinary executive ability could perform. Hence, the law merely specified that the commissioner of schools should be “some good, competent and responsible person of the county.” When the office became an elective one this specification was dropped, and from that time on no scholastic qualifications for the county superintendency have been prescribed in that state by law. That this was in some measure due to the gradual assumption of school duties by that officer or was at least an oversight is indicated by the fact that when the county superintendent was authorized by law to employ, with the approval of the county board, such assistant or assistants as he needs for the discharge of his duties, it was provided that “such assistants shall be persons of good attainments, versed in the principles and methods of teaching, familiar with the public school

*Fifth year book, National Society for the Scientific Study of Education, part 2, pp. 67-8.

work, and competent to visit schools." We thus have the somewhat peculiar condition in that state of requiring certain qualifications on the part of the county superintendent's assistants, while no requirements are demanded of him.

Now, the office of county superintendent is a distinctly professional one. Since the commissioner of schools was made *ex officio* superintendent of common schools in his county his duties have been to a large extent educational, and consequently the office, if not the law, demanded educational qualifications. Today the duties of the office are chiefly educational. The superintendent is expected to be first of all a leader of the educational work of his county. He is a teacher of teachers. He should, therefore, possess at least the academic qualifications of the more advanced teachers of his county. Such qualifications are needed not merely to beget confidence and to give him standing among those with whom he works, although this is important, but also because without them, other qualifications being the same, he is greatly handicapped in his work as a superintendent.

Being a superintendent of the work of teachers, the county superintendent should know good teaching when he sees it. He will be all the better judge of teaching after he has had experience as a teacher. There should, therefore, be required of the county superintendent of schools definite scholastic qualifications and also experience in teaching.

Finally, the county superintendent is a superintendent of schools. He is at the head of the school system of his county and is the mediating agent between the schools and the school officers of his county and the educational authorities of the State. He should therefore be familiar with the school system of the State and with the general principles of school organization and administration. As he usually has appellate jurisdiction in matters of dispute concerning educational affairs in his county, he should be thoroughly familiar with the school law of the State. In a word, he should have the special qualifications naturally to be expected of a professional supervisor of schools.

In view of the peculiar duties attaching to the county superintendency he should be required to hold a supervisory certificate, the lowest form of which should demand the academic preparation necessary to obtain a first grade county certificate and in addition a knowledge of the school system and school law of the State and of school organization and administration.

This should be required not because prescribed qualifications are absolutely necessary to secure competent school superintendents. The experience of many states shows the contrary. A comparatively high standard of qualifications is in most states enforced by public opinion. But the time has come when this standard should be generally recognized and expressed in the laws of the states.

In some of the states in which the county superintendent is elected by the people it is supposed by some that scholastic qualifications could not legally be prescribed for the office of county superintendent. This is probably an erroneous supposition. Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, Michigan, Wisconsin and other states elect their county superintendents, but

at the same time they provide the requirement of certain scholastic qualifications. The inference would be that other states might do the same. In Illinois, for instance, the matter is not left to inference. The constitution of that State expressly provides that the qualifications of the county superintendent "shall be prescribed by law."* Fixing the qualifications of the county superintendents, therefore, is not merely something which the General Assembly may do, it is something which it is specifically enjoined to do. Up to the present time, however, no standard of qualification has been prescribed. "The right of the people to elect their county superintendent of schools," said Bateman, "should not be abridged, but it seems entirely practicable for the Legislature to require the candidate to possess certain necessary qualifications for the duties of the office, and I respectfully recommend that it be done."† In another place he declared that "it is a solecism in our school system that while no teacher can be employed, or paid, in any school in the State, under any circumstances whatever, without due examination and licensure; no conditions or qualifications of any kind or degree are required of the man who conducts the examination, and issues, or refuses to issue, the license. He may be the first gentleman and scholar in his county, pre-eminently worthy in character and attainments: or deplorably lacking in intelligence, scholarship, morality and refinement—it is all the same in the eye of the law, under the present arrangement. It is submitted that this is neither reasonable nor safe—the wise purpose of the law in requiring proof of the fitness and competency of teachers, is obviously liable to be negated and nullified in any county at any time. Some evidence of competency and fitness, some tangible proof of reasonable qualifications for the office, and of capacity to discharge its duties, should be made a condition of eligibility to the office of county superintendent of schools."‡

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†Illinois School Report, 1869-70, p. 128.

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COUNTY BOARDS OF EDUCATION.

THE NUMBER OF STATES HAVING COUNTY BOARDS.

Twenty-nine of the states of this country have some form of county board of education. In one form or another the county board is found in all the middle states but New York and Pennsylvania and in all the southern state but Arkansas. Four of the fourteen central states, namely, Illinois, Wisconsin, Nebraska and North Dakota have no provision for a county board of education. The same is true of four of the Pacific states, namely, Washington, Idaho, Colorado and Wyoming, and two territories, Arizona and New Mexico. There are no county boards of education in the New England states. A few states have a provision for more than one kind of county board. Virginia, for instance, has a county trustee electoral board and Oregon has a county high school board consisting of the county judge and the two county commissioners, the county treasurer and the county school superintendent.

MEMBERSHIP AND TERM OF OFFICE.

The number of members of the county boards in the different states varies considerably. In eight states the number is determined by the number of districts or townships from which the members of the county board are appointed or elected. In the twenty-one states in which the number of members is fixed it is either three or five. In sixteen states it is three and in five states it is five. The term of office varies from two to four years.

COMPOSITION.

There is also great diversity in the method of constituting county boards of education. There are at least a dozen different ways by which the members are selected. In seventeen of the states the county superintendent is a member by virtue of his office. The remaining members are, as a rule, appointed. In only three states, Florida, Nevada and Utah, are they directly elected by the people. In Delaware and Maryland they are appointed by the governor. In Kentucky, Mississippi, New Jersey, Oklahoma, Oregon and Texas the members additional to the county superintendent are appointed by him. In North Carolina the General Assembly appoints, in Missouri and South Caro-

lina the state board of education, in Georgia the grand jury, in Ohio the probate judge, and in Tennessee the county court. In Indiana the county superintendent, the trustees of the townships and the chairmen of the school trustees of each town and city of the county constitute the county board. Sometimes the board is composed of the supervisors or commissioners of the county or these officers have the power to appoint some of the members. Examples of this method of constituting the board are found in California, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan and Montana. In Minnesota, in unorganized territory, schools are under the control of a county board of education which is composed of the chairman of the board of county commissioners, the county superintendent and the county treasurer. There is a movement in that state, however, to bring about a radical change. The last legislative committee of the Minnesota Educational Association recommended the creation of a non-partisan county board of education to be elected at the annual school meeting, one member from each commissioner's district; the term of office to be four years. Such board is to meet quarterly and its members are to be paid their traveling expenses and a per diem compensation.

QUALIFICATIONS OF MEMBERS.

Special qualifications are required of members of county boards only in states in which such boards have power to certificate teachers and not in all of these. Of the thirteen states authorizing county boards to issue certificates ten require some definite educational qualifications on the part of the members. In only three are no qualifications required. In seven of these states the members of the county board are required to hold at least a first grade county certificate. In California three of the five members must hold certificates not lower than a grammar school certificate, which must be in full force and effect, and if there be a high school in the county one member is required to hold a high school certificate. In Montana members must have been engaged in teaching for eighteen months prior to their election. In Ohio two years' experience is required and members of the board must have been actively engaged in teaching within five years.

POWERS AND DUTIES.

In ten of the states the duties of county boards of education are practically limited to holding examinations and granting certificates. Three other states include the certificating function among others. In two of the states county boards have nothing to do but to select and adopt text books for use in the public schools of the county. In Iowa the powers of the board are limited to duties connected with text books. In six of the states power is given to the county boards of education to elect the county superintendent, the district superintendent, or the county

commissioner of schools. The powers and duties of the county boards of education in all the states are set forth in detail in the following table:

TABLE I.

Showing the Number of Members, Term of Office, the Composition, and Powers and Duties of the County Boards of Education in the United States.

State.	No.	Term.	Composition.	Powers and Duties.
Alabama.....	5	4	County superintendent and 4 county trustees elected by the chairmen of the boards of district trustees.....	1. To adopt rules and regulations for government of schools. 2. To acquire, purchase, lease, receive, hold, transmit and convey title to real and personal property for school purposes. 3. To change district boundaries. 4. To organize and maintain teachers' institutes. 5. To apportion school fund among districts of county. 6. To fill vacancies in district board of trustees
California.....	5	2	County superintendent and 4 other members appointed by board of supervisors.....	1. To prescribe and enforce rules for examination of teachers. 2. To grant and revoke certificates. 3. To adopt a list of books and apparatus for district school libraries, and except in cities having a City Board of Education, to prescribe and enforce in the public schools a course of study and the use of a uniform series of text books.....
Delaware.....	3	3	Appointed by governor..	1. To have general supervision of school system in county. 2. To report quarterly to State Board of Education. 3. To hear complaints regarding schools and school officers. 4. To condemn school buildings as unsafe or unhealthy.....
Florida.....	3	2	One member from each school district elected by the people	1. To examine books and records of tax collector. 2. To require prompt settlement of all poll taxes. 3. To appoint grading committee prior to each examination. 4. To contract debts and borrow money.....
Georgia.....	5	4	Appointed by grand jury except in counties under local system.....	1. To select county commissioner. 2. To divide county in sub-districts when necessary for white and colored races. 3. To employ teachers. 4. To purchase, lease, or rent school sites. 5. To build or repair school houses. 6. To decide controversies relating to school law.....

Table 1—Continued.

State.	No.	Term.	Composition.	Powers and Duties.
Indiana.....	4	County superintendent township trustees and chairman of school trustees of each town and city	1. To adopt rules and regulations for government of schools of county. 2. To act with board of county commissioners in electing trustees for donated county high schools. 3. To consider general wants of county schools in regard to furniture, books, maps and charts. 4. To determine changes of high school text books (except in cities) and to manage township libraries. Note—The township trustees acting separately elect the county superintendent
Iowa	Var- ries.	2 3	County superintendent, county auditor and members of the board of supervisors.....	1. To submit to voters questions of uniformity of text books. 2. To adopt and contract for text books for use in rural schools. 3. To purchase text books for sale and appoint depository agents to handle the same.....
Kansas.....	3	County superintendent and 2 persons appointed by county commissioners.....	1. To conduct examinations and grant certificates
Kentucky.....	3	4	County superintendent and 2 persons appointed by him.....	1. To hold examinations and grant certificates. 2. To purchase, lease or rent school sites, to build, repair or rent school houses and to purchase necessary apparatus. 3. To fix salaries of county high school teachers. 4. To select text books to be used in county high schools.....
Louisiana	4	One member from each police jury ward, elected by people.....	1. To elect parish superintendent. 2. To report neglect of duty on part of teachers to State Board of Education. 3. To determine, number of schools to be opened, location of school houses, number of teachers to be employed and their salaries. 4. To make necessary rules and regulations for schools. 5. To receive lands by purchase or donation for purpose of erecting a school house

Table 1—Continued.

State.	No.	Term.	Composition.	Powers and Duties.
Maryland.....	3 6	6	Appointed by Governor, 6 in 6 counties, 3 in others.....	1. To have general supervision of schools in county. 2. To build, repair and furnish school houses. 3. To appoint assistant teachers with advice of principal of school to which teacher is to be appointed. 5. To consolidate schools. 6. To report annually to State Board of Education. 7. To revoke certificates. 8. To fix the salaries of teachers. 9. To appoint county school su- perintendent
Michigan.....	3	2 4	County commissioner and 2 appointed by board of supervisors...	1. To hold two regular examin- ations each year at county seat. 2. To grant and revoke certificates
Minnesota.....	3	2	Chairman board of county commissioners, county superintendent and county treasurer compose board of un- organized territory.....	1. To make levy annually on all property in unorganized terri- tory for purpose of providing teachers, etc. 2. To furnish school facilities to all children in territory
Mississippi.....		4	County superintendent and 2 appointed by him	1. To hold examinations and grant certificates
Missouri.....	3	2	County commissioner, one member appointed by county court and one appointed by State Board of Education....	1. To hold examinations and grant certificates. 2. To adopt course of study for use of schools of county. 3. To se- cure uniformity in grading and classifying schools.....
Montana.....	3	2	County superintendent and two persons ap- pointed by county commissioners.....	1. To hold examinations and grade papers. 2. To hold eighth grade examinations and grant diplomas or certifi- cates to persons passing such examinations
Nevada.....	3	District attorney and two persons elected by people	1. To estimate amount of money needed to pay necessary ex- penses of county high school. 2. To adopt necessary text books and enforce course of study for county high school. 5. To do all things necessary to proper conduct of schools..

Table 1—Continued.

State.	No.	Term.	Composition.	Powers and Duties.
New Jersey.....	Not fixed.	County superintendent and not to exceed three teachers appointed by him	1. To hold examinations. 2. To grant and revoke certificates.
North Carolina.	3	2	Appointed by General Assembly.....	1. To enforce school law. 2. To remove any teacher for immoral conduct or the county superintendent upon complaint of State superintendent. 3. To make regulations governing attendance of school children. 4. To create, abolish, or consolidate districts. 5. To have general supervision of schools in county. 6. To appoint county superintendent
Ohio.....	3	3	Appointed by probate judge	1. To hold examinations. 2. To grant and revoke certificates.
Oklahoma	3	2	County superintendent and two members appointed by him.....	1. To hold examinations. 2. To grant and revoke certificates.
Oregon	3	County superintendent and two members appointed by him.....	1. To hold examinations. 2. To grant and revoke certificates.
South Carolina..	3	2	County superintendent and two appointed by State Board of Education.....	1. To hold examinations. 2. To grant and revoke certificates. 3. To supervise county schools. 4. To levy county school tax and apportion fund. 5. To divide county into convenient school districts. 6. To fill vacancies in board of trustees. 7. To regulate opening and closing of school terms. 8. To set aside from county fund a sufficient amount to provide pupils with text books at actual cost or exchange prices..
South Dakota...	County superintendent, president board of education of all cities or towns, county auditor, board of county commissioners, their successors in office and one person from each commissioner's district.....	1. To select and adopt text books for use in public schools of county
Tennessee.....	5	2	Elected by county court.	1. To select teachers, fix their salaries, erect buildings, repair and furnish school houses. 2. To secure as nearly as practicable uniformity of school term. 3. To locate schools where deemed most convenient. 4. To dismiss teachers for incompetency or immoral conduct

Table 1.—Concluded.

State.	No.	Term.	Composition.	Powers and Duties.
Texas.....	3	Fixed by county supt.	Appointed by county superintendent.....	1. To hold examinations and grade applicants' papers. 2. To report to county superintendent number of credits allowed on each subject.....
Utah	5	4	One elected from each of five representative precincts, (a school district board)	1. To take school census. 2. To purchase and sell school house sites. 3. To establish and support school libraries. 4. To elect district superintendent of schools. 5. To purchase or exchange high school apparatus. 6. To adopt by-laws and rules for the procedure of the board of education, and make all needful rules for the management of the schools.....
Virginia	1	Division superintendent of schools and school trustees in each county	1. To file annually with the division superintendent an estimate of amount of money needed during next scholastic year. 2. To apportion county school fund. Virginia has also a school trustees electoral board
West Virginia..	9	4	County superintendent and eight members appointed by County Court.....	1. To adopt text books.....

TYPICAL COUNTY BOARDS.

An examination of the foregoing table will show that there are three types of county boards of education representing three grades of authority exercised over the public schools.

First, there is the board which is nothing more than a legally constituted committee on text books. Such, for instance, are the boards of West Virginia, South Dakota and Iowa. The sole function of the West Virginia and South Dakota boards is to select and adopt all the text books needed in the public schools of the county. The West Virginia board, we may say in passing, is somewhat peculiarly constituted. It is composed of the county superintendent who is secretary *ex officio* of the board and "eight other reputable citizens and tax payers of the county." Four of the eight must be free holders and not school teachers. Three members must be persons actively engaged in teaching in the schools of the county and must hold a teacher's first grade certificate or its equivalent. Not more than five of the eight may belong to the same political party. In Iowa text books are usually selected and adopted by the boards of directors of school corporations. But on petition of one-third of the school directors in a county, other than those

in cities and towns, the county board of education consisting of the county superintendent, county auditor and the members of the board of supervisors, may submit to the voters of the county the question of county uniformity of text books. If the question is carried the county board selects the text books for the entire county, under such rules and regulations as it may see fit to adopt.

The second type of county board is that represented by what is usually known as a county board of examiners. Its function is limited to the examination of teachers and the granting and revoking of certificates. This kind of board is found in the following states: Kansas, Michigan, Mississippi, Montana, New Jersey, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon and Texas. The county boards of California, Kentucky and Missouri have slightly additional functions. California authorizes the county board to adopt text books for district school libraries and to prescribe, and enforce in the rural schools a course of study and the use of a uniform series of text books. In Kentucky the board has control of the county high school and may also purchase, lease, or rent school sites and to build, repair, or rent school houses and purchase necessary apparatus. Missouri authorizes the county boards of the State, in addition to the power to hold examinations and grant certificates, to adopt a course of study for use in the public schools of the county and to secure uniformity in grading and classifying schools. Kansas offers a good example of this second type of county board. The law of that state provides that "in each county there shall be a board of county examiners, composed of the county superintendent, who shall be *ex officio* chairman of the board, and two competent persons, holders of professional certificates or first grade certificates, or of state certificates, or of diplomas from the State University, the State Normal School, or the State Agricultural College, who shall be appointed by the county commissioners on the nomination of the county superintendent, and shall serve one year from the time of their respective appointments, and each of whom shall receive for their services the sum of three dollars per day for not to exceed twenty-four days in any one year."* The board so constituted is required to hold three examinations a year at such places as may be designated by the county superintendent for the purpose of determining the qualifications of all persons proposing to teach in the common schools of the county, except in cities of the first and second class. Reference has already been made to the almost general requirement of educational qualifications for members of county boards of the second type.

Finally, there is a third type of county board. It is found in about a dozen states of the Union. This type is characterized by the possession of practically complete control over the public schools of the county. The school law of Delaware, for instance, provides that "The supervision of all the free public schools, including those for colored children, in each of the counties of this State * * * shall be vested in the county school commission for each county. The said commission shall be composed of three persons, no more than two of whom

*Laws relating to the common schools of Kansas, chapter 2, section 61, pp. 33-34.

shall be of the same political party. They shall be appointed by the governor." Similar provisions may be found in the law of about half of the southern states. The best example in the northern states of the third type of county board may be found in Indiana. The county boards of Indiana are composed of the county superintendent, the trustees of the townships, and the chairmen of the school trustees of the towns and cities of the county. The board looks after the general wants and needs of the schools and school property of which it has charge and all matters relating to the purchase of school furniture, books, maps, charts, etc. The scope of its authority is indicated by the fact that it may formulate and adopt rules and regulations for the government of the schools of the county. Perhaps, however, the best examples of this type of board are those of the state of Maryland. Under the general title of supervision the school law of Maryland provides that educational matters affecting the state, and the general care and supervision of public education shall be entrusted to a state board of education; that educational matters affecting a county shall be under the control of a board of county school commissioners; and that educational matters affecting a school district shall be under the supervision of a board of district school trustees.* There is thus a definite suggestion of a complete educational system. The county board has the general supervision and control of all the schools in the county. It has power to build, repair, and furnish school houses; to purchase and distribute text books; to appoint all assistant teachers, after advising with the principal of the school to which the teacher is to be appointed; it fixes the salary of all teachers; it has authority to consolidate schools where, in its judgment, consolidation is practicable and desirable, and to arrange for any school to pay the charges of transporting pupils to and from it, and to perform such other duties as may be necessary to secure an efficient administration of the public school system. Such a county board is obviously quite a different body from those described as belonging to the first type.

THE ADVANTAGES OF A COUNTY BOARD.

The general purpose to be served by a county board of education is to assist the county superintendent in carrying out his educational policies and in the performance of the work necessary to operate the general educational system of the State. The county board bears about the same relation to the county superintendent as does the State board to the State Superintendent. County boards, it would seem, are needed to complete the educational administrative system of the State. They would extend that system from the general supervising agencies at the capitol of the State and at the county seat to the remotest rural districts. They would serve as an avenue of communication between the various educational authorities of the State and the people of each township.

But it is not for the sake of systematic State organization alone that county boards of education should be constituted. They may be made the direct means of increasing the general efficiency of the schools

*Public school law of Maryland, chapter 1, sections 2, 3 and 4, p. 6.

and the school system of the county. The county superintendent has general supervision of the schools of the county as the Superintendent of Public Instruction has general supervision of the schools of the State. For practically the same reasons which make it advisable to have a State Board of Education to assist the State officer in the performance of his duties it is also advisable to have a similar body to assist the county superintendent in directing and improving the work of the county schools. The county superintendent is required "to labor in every practicable way to elevate the standard of teaching and improve the condition of the common schools of his county." Now, it would be of the greatest assistance to him when he has devised plans looking to this end to be able to call together the county board, explain to its members his ideas and policies and secure their coöperation in carrying his plans into effect. It would be necessary, of course, for him to convince the members of the board that his plans are wise and expedient, but if he is unable to persuade them that what he proposes to do is calculated to promote the welfare of the schools, it will be evidence that his plans are untimely or at least that they need modification. If on the other hand, he is able to develop in the county board an active interest in school administration and school teaching he will have at his command a strong force to bring into operation in the development of public sentiment favorable to advanced ideas in regard to the conduct of schools. It will be well for him and for them to meet at intervals to discuss educational needs, problems and expedients and the benefits derived by them from exchange of ideas and opinions would be reflected in the welfare of the schools.

It is not alone, then, as an avenue of communication and a means of developing public sentiment in favor of wise educational policies that county boards are desirable. Their members would be the direct agents of the county superintendents in promoting the efficiency of the schools. Moreover, there are certain definite powers and duties which are usually assigned to them by law. Among these are the power to adopt and enforce rules and regulations for the management of schools not inconsistent with the regulations prescribed by the State Board of Education; to direct what branches of study shall be taught and what text books and apparatus shall be used in the several schools; to prescribe a uniform series of text books and to enforce their use in the schools over which they exercise control; to select the books for district libraries and in general to coöperate with the county superintendent in devising and carrying out plans for promoting the educational work of his county.

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UNITS OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION.

It is obvious that no school system can be effective or even continue its existence without some form of local authority and administration. The primary element of an educational system is the school and the maintenance of the school requires the immediate attention of properly authorized persons to its immediate needs. The school site must be located, the school house be built and furnished, the teacher employed, rules and regulations in regard to the government and management of the school must be formulated, expenses met, etc., and these duties are best performed by some person or persons who are citizens of the community and acquainted with its educational needs. Accordingly we find that in all the states of the union there are local school officers whose duties are practically the same whatever the title of such officers may be. In Maine, Massachusetts and Rhode Island they are called school committeemen, in other states trustees, and in still others directors. There is no question, indeed there is no possibility, of eliminating the local school or the local school official from our educational system.

The school, however, is a social agency. The school officers derive their authority from the people and their duties are prescribed by the people. The people, therefore, must decide for themselves upon the form of school organization they shall adopt and the area to which the authority and activities of their school officials shall be confined. While communities are isolated, the territorial question is a matter of no practical importance. It settles itself. School officials extend their jurisdiction to the limits of the community. But when communities are organized into a state and the school work of the state is to be harmonized and systematized the question becomes highly important. Should the area of local organization be large or small? Should it be coextensive with a civil or political unit? If so, should that unit be the district the township or the county? This is a question of school organization and administration. At the same time it is a question of social economy and educational efficiency. It is the question of the unit of school organization.

Like most other social questions that of the legal organization and the authoritative administration of the school system has not in many states or communities been the subject of deliberate social consideration, and in still fewer localities has the question been brought to a

rational and final solution. Such systems of school organization as we have are as a rule the more or less incidental and unconscious outgrowths of historical and social conditions. These conditions have differed in different parts of the country. Hence the school organization in one section differs from the school organization in another section. The fact that we have the town system in the New England states and the county system in the southern states is almost wholly an accidental feature of the well known social conditions which led to the establishment of the town as the political unit of government in New England and of the county as the political unit in the south. Our local systems of school organization may therefore be said to have come into existence without much conscious reference to the future needs of the states adopting them.

These systems are four in number. Consequently we have in this country at present four units of school organization. They are the community, the district, the township and the county.

THE COMMUNITY SYSTEM.

The community system of school organization is exceptional. It exists only in Texas and in but a few counties of that state. In certain counties of Texas called "community counties" the people may unite in the organization of a free school community by making application in writing to the county judge asking that their *pro rata* share of the available school fund of the county be set apart for the benefit of their community. Their petition must set forth whether the application is made in behalf of a white or a colored community, must state the name, age and sex of each child to be benefitted, the capacity of the school house, the character of the school conveniences if any, and certain other information. The county judge seems to have little option in the matter of granting the petition. If the request is made in due form he grants it and appoints three trustees of the school to whom are assigned the duties usually performed by such officers. Any county may be transferred from the community to the district system by an order from the commissioner's court. The community system is obviously adapted only to a thinly settled region. It is losing ground in Texas, and in all probability it will disappear gradually as the population of the state increases.

THE DISTRICT SYSTEM.

The district system was originally almost universal and it still prevails in many of the states. In one form or another it is found in all states west of the Alleghanies except Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and a few of the southern states. Indeed it is not entirely eliminated in New England. In Connecticut, as has been remarked, seventy-eight of its one hundred and sixty-eight towns are still under the district system. In all the other New England states, however, the district system is abolished. There are still independent or special districts, of

course, but the principle of sub-division of towns into districts is abolished. In Massachusetts alone may it be said, "the school district system with its blighting influence has disappeared."* The struggle to make such a statement possible with respect to Massachusetts is historical. That struggle illustrates how tenacious the district system is. In 1853 the towns of Massachusetts were allowed to discontinue it. In 1859 districts were abolished by law, but in a special session of the General Court held the same year the law abolishing the districts was repealed. In 1869 districts were again abolished, but in 1870 a law was passed permitting towns to re-establish the district system by a two-thirds majority of the voters, which was virtually a repeal of the earlier law. The system was finally abolished in 1882. It was abolished in New Hampshire in 1885, in Vermont in 1892, and in Maine and Rhode Island in 1893. In some of the southern states in which neither the town nor the township exists counties have been divided into districts and the district system with all its evils virtually prevails.

The principle of the district system is practically the same as that of the community system. It is that the people of the community or neighborhood shall have control of their own school or schools. But the system implies the division of a town or township into small subdivisions each of which is a unit of school organization and administration. Consequently the district system is said to prevail wherever this principle of subdivision is in operation. It is impossible, of course, to find any state or any locality in which the schools are absolutely under the control of small autonomous districts. The district system does not imply the absence of every form of district subordination to superior school authorities. But it does imply from the amount of authority left with the people of the district the principle of local control.

This system is simple and democratic and it is the natural system in a country of small, scattered communities. In a new country it is almost certain to be the earliest form of school government adopted, at least one of the earliest, and once established it is hard to uproot. It is not strange, therefore, to find the system so widely distributed in this country.

As to the form of school organization in states under the district system there is practically unanimity. Three directors or trustees are elected by the people to serve for a term of three years and are empowered to discharge all the duties necessary to the maintenance of the schools. These duties are in general the following: To build, rent, furnish and repair school buildings, to purchase school furniture and apparatus, to manage, control and convey district school property, to employ or to dismiss teachers, to admit or to expel pupils, to prescribe and enforce rules for the government of the schools, to say what branches of study shall be taught, to take the school census, and to make reports at stated times to a superior school authority. In some states their functions are even wider, and in others they are not so extensive. The accompanying table presents a conspectus of the district

*Secretary Massachusetts Board of Education, Report of 1905-6, p. 78.

system as it exists in the various states.* Not all the states mentioned are organized under the district system exclusively. In Connecticut, Iowa, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota and the Dakotas the township system is permissive.

*The conspectus and the tables to follow show only the prevailing forms of school organization. Little more than this is possible. To illustrate the difficulty of suggesting in a table the actual school organization and administration in any state, take, for instance, the great variety of forms of administration in the state of Connecticut. Connecticut has a peculiarly mixed system. The township system prevails in ninety of its towns and the district system in seventy-eight. In eighty-five of the ninety towns the legal name of the board is "town school committee," but in the other five towns the legal name of the board is "board of education." The reason for these exceptions as to name is that under special enactments in amending city charters the name "board of education" seemed more appropriate than "town school committee." In seventy-seven of the towns under the district system the regular name of the board is "board of school visitors." The other town under this system has a special form of school organization and the legal name of the board is "board of education." In all of the towns but two the boards are elected by the people. In the two exceptions the members of the board are appointed by the mayor. In almost all of the one hundred and sixty-eight towns the members of the board are elected for terms of three years. In towns which have only three members on their boards the law provides that the elections may be either annual or biennial, as the town may determine. In towns which have consolidated their districts and elected "town school committees," the committee may consist of three, six, nine or twelve members, as the town shall determine, and the same is true with regard to the number of members of district boards. One town which is under the town system of management has a board of nine members, appointed by the mayor for terms of three years. Another under the same system has a board of seven members. One member is elected by the voters of the town and six are elected by wards, the voters of each ward electing two for terms of four years each. The one member elected by the town is elected for a term of two years. In another town under the town system the seven members of the board are appointed by the mayor for terms of four years each.

In regard to the district school officers, the Connecticut law provides that the committee shall not exceed three in number. In most of the districts, however, the committee consists of one person. The term of district officers is one year. Any school district which had by its last enumeration not less than two hundred children between four and sixteen years of age may vote to elect its committee under a special provision of the law, and in that case it can have a committee of three members, each member being elected for three years.

For this detailed information in regard to the educational system of Connecticut, the Commission is indebted to Mr. A. J. Wright, Chief Clerk in the office of the Secretary of the Connecticut State Board of Education.

TABLE I.

Showing the Title, Number, Method of Appointment or Election, Term, and the Principal Powers and Duties of District School Officers in the States Under District School Organization.

State.	Title.	No.	Election or appointment.	Term.	Powers and Duties.
Alabama.....	Trustees	3	By people	4	1. To enumerate children within school age. 2. To care for all school property. 3. To nominate to county board teachers for their own district. 4. To visit schools. 5. To perform other duties required by county board
Arkansas.....	Directors.....	3	By people	3	1. To have charge of school affairs and educational interests in their district. 2. To have care and custody of school property. 3. To build or hire school buildings. 4. To employ teachers. 5. To suspend pupils. 6. To report to county examiner
Arizona.....	Trustees	3	By people	3	1. To prescribe and enforce rules for government of schools. 2. To manage and control school property. 3. To purchase school furniture and apparatus. 4. To build, rent, furnish and repair school buildings. 5. To convey district property. 6. To employ teachers. 7. To expel pupils, or to exclude children under six. 8. To enforce prescribed course of study and text books. 9. To appoint district librarians. 10. To admit pupils from other districts. 11. To appoint census marshal. 12. To visit schools. 13. To report to county superintendent
California.....	Trustees	3	By people	4	1. To prescribe rules for government of schools. 2. To manage school property. 3. To supply text books to indigent children. 4. To build school buildings and to rent, repair and convey school property. 5. To employ teachers. 6. To suspend pupils and exclude certain children. 7. To enforce the use of prescribed course of study and text books. 8. To appoint district librarian. 9. To admit children from other districts. 10. To appoint census marshal. 11. To visit schools. 12. To report to county superintendent

Table I—Continued.

State.	Title.	No.	Election or appointment.	Term.	Powers and Duties.
Colorado	Directors	5 3	By people	5 3	1. To employ teachers. 2. To fix course of study and prescribe text books. 3. To expel pupils. 4. To build, rent or repair school buildings. 5. To provide books for indigent children. 6. To admit pupils from other districts. 7. To report to county superintendent
Connecticut ..	Committee....	3	By people	1	1. To provide and furnish school buildings. 2. To visit schools. 3. To provide text books for indigent children. 4. To suspend or expel pupils. 5. To employ teachers. Note—About one-half the towns of Connecticut are under the town system
Delaware	Committee....	3	By people	3	1. To build and repair school houses. 2. To employ teachers. 3. To visit schools. 4. To make regulations for the government of schools. 5. To control school finances. 6. To furnish text books free. 7. To admit pupils from other districts
Idaho	Trustees	3	By people	3	1. To employ teachers. 2. To have charge of all school property. 3. To build, repair and furnish school houses. 4. To have control of school libraries. 5. To enumerate school children. 6. To report to county superintendent
Illinois.....	Directors....	3	By people	3	1. To employ and dismiss teachers. 2. To adopt rules and regulations for government of schools. 3. To visit schools. 4. To direct what branches shall be taught and what text books shall be used. 5. To supply books to indigent children. 6. To assign, suspend and expel pupils. 7. To borrow money to build school houses. 8. To grant special holidays. 9. To decide when a school house is unnecessary, unsuitable or inconvenient...
Iowa	Directors.....	1	By people	1	1. To give notice of sub-district meetings. 2. To employ teachers when authorized by township board. 3. To make contracts for fuel and in like matters when authorized. 4. To prepare annually a list of children in the school district of school age. 5. To report to the secretary of the school township. 6. May have industrial exposition held. 7. Must enforce compulsory attendance law

Table I—Continued.

State.	Title.	No.	Election or appointment.	Term.	Powers and Duties.
Kansas.....	Directors.....	3	By people	3	1. To have care and keeping of school property. 2. To admit pupils from other districts. 3. To employ teachers. 4. To suspend pupils. 5. To visit schools. 6. To levy taxes....
Kentucky	Trustees	3	By people	2	1. To build and furnish school houses. 2. To levy taxes. 3. To employ and remove teachers. 4. To visit parents and urge attendance of children. 5. To take school census. 6. To report to county superintendent
Michigan	Directors.....	3	By people	3	1. To build or hire school houses. 2. To levy taxes. 3. To employ teachers. 4. To have care and custody of school property. 5. To prescribe the branches to be taught. 6. To furnish books for indigent children. 7. To suspend or expel pupils. 8. To admit non-resident pupils.....
Minnesota ...	School Board .	3	By people	3 6	1. To employ teachers. 2. To adopt rules for organization, government and instruction of schools. 3. To adopt and purchase text books when directed by vote of district. 4. To admit non-resident pupils. 5. To provide transportation for pupils residing over one-half mile from a school house.
Mississippi ...	Trustees	3	By people	3	1. To employ teachers. 2. To suspend or expel pupils. 3. To visit schools. 4. To care for school property. 5. To arbitrate between teachers and pupils
Missouri	Directors....	3	By people	3	1. To care for school property. 2. To make rules for government and grading of schools. 3. To employ teachers. 4. To visit schools. 5. To exclude children with contagious diseases. 6. To take school census. 7. To levy taxes.....
Montana.....	Trustees	3 5 7	By people	3	1. To employ and discharge teachers. 2. To enforce rules for government of schools. 3. To rent, repair and insure school houses, and to build when authorized by vote. 4. To suspend or expel pupils. 5. To provide books for indigent children. 6. To report to county superintendent.....
Nebraska.....	Directors.....	3 6 9	By people	3	1. To employ teachers. 2. To take school census. 3. To admit non-resident pupils. 4. To provide for transportation of pupils. 5. To suspend pupils. 6. To build or hire school houses. 7. To have care and custody of school property...

Table I—Continued.

State.	Title.	No.	Election or appointment.	Term.	Powers and Duties.
Nevada	Trustees	3	By people	2	1. To build, purchase or hire school houses when directed by vote. 2. To employ teachers. 3. To visit schools. 4. To provide books for indigent children. 5. To grade schools. 6. To suspend or expel pupils. 7. To unite contiguous districts. 8. To enforce sanitary regulations
New Mexico.	Directors	3	By people	3	1. To have care and keeping of school property. 2. To employ teachers. 3. To take school census. 4. To report to county superintendent....
New York....	Trustees	1 3	By people	1 3	1. To have care and custody of school property. 2. To employ teachers. 3. To levy taxes. 4. To establish rules for government of schools. 5. To report to school commissioner
North Dakota.	Directors	3	By people	3	1. To have general charge of schools. 2. To have care and custody of school property. 3. To employ teachers. 4. To suspend pupils. 5. To purchase and loan text books. 6. To admit children from other districts. 7. To levy taxes. 8. To build and repair school houses. 9. To take school census
Oklahoma	Direct'r, Clerk, Treasurer ...	3	By people	3 2 1	1. To build or hire school houses when authorized by vote. 2. To have care and keeping of school property. 3. To admit pupils from adjoining districts. 4. To employ teachers. 5. To levy taxes.....
Oregon	Directors	3	By people	5 3	1. To visit and inspect schools. 2. To employ teachers. 3. To furnish apparatus. 4. To admit pupils from other districts
South Dakota.	District Board	3	By people	3	1. To furnish and supply all schools in district. 2. To keep record of all proceedings. 3. To take school census. 4. To report annually to county superintendent. 5. To draw and sign warrants. 6. To employ and dismiss teachers....
Tennessee....	Advisory B'd.	3	By people	2	1. To visit and inspect schools. 2. To make general recommendations to county board for advancement of school interests. 3. To report annually to county board. Note—Each county is divided into five school districts each of which is to correspond to a civil district if there be that many civil districts

Table I—Concluded.

State.	Title.	No.	Election or appointment.	Term.	Powers and Duties.
Texas.....	Trustees	3	By people	2	1. To control public schools. 2. To employ and dismiss teachers. 3. To expel pupils. 4. To determine number and location of schools. 5. To contract with teachers.....
Utah	Trustees	3	By people	3	1. To have general management of schools in district and control of all school property. 2. To maintain, locate or discontinue schools. 3. To make repairs and furnish supplies. 4. To employ teachers. 5. To take school census. 6. To establish and maintain school libraries
Virginia.....	Trustees	1	Appointed by county sch'l trustee electoral board..	3	1. To enforce school laws. 2. To employ and dismiss teachers. 3. To suspend or expel pupils. 4. To take school census. 5. To visit and inspect schools. 6. To have care and custody of school property
Washington...	Directors.....	3	By people	3	1. To employ and dismiss teachers. 2. To enforce school law. 3. To provide supplies. 4. To build or remove school houses. 5. To suspend or expel pupils. 6. To provide free text books.
W. Virginia...	Bd.of Educ't'n	2	By people	4	1. To appoint trustees of sub-districts. 2. To employ teachers in graded schools and determine salaries. 3. To have general supervision of schools.
Wisconsin	District Board	3	By people	3	1. To countersign all orders drawn on treasurer. 2. To appear for and on behalf of district in all actions brought by and against it
Wyoming.....	Trustees.....	3 6	By people	1 3	1. To make all contracts, purchases, payments and sales for procuring school house site. 2. To remove pupils for disorderly conduct. 3. To admit pupils from adjoining districts. 4. To employ teachers. 5. To transact business of electors if so delegated.....

ADVANTAGES OF THE DISTRICT SYSTEM.

The chief argument in favor of the district system is its democratic nature. The district has been called "probably the most communistic as well as democratic feature of our political institutions."* The great obstacle encountered by Horace Mann in his attempt to change the Massachusetts system from district organization to town organization was the idea that the surrender of the district system was in some way

*Report Commissioner of Education, 1894-5, p. 1457.

a surrender of democratic principles. There was the same objection then to centralization that is always heard when there is a movement towards integration and system.

Now there can be no question as to the democratic nature of district organization. It is, in appearance at least, "of the people, by the people, for the people." Under this system the people have an immediate voice in the management of their schools. And such interest as the people have taken in this matter, and the expression of their will in the district school meeting, have been a valuable means in the development of free institutions. The district has been, so to speak, a kind of school of civil government. It has been the area upon which has been worked out some of the important questions of our democracy. But in the development of a democracy there always comes a time when efficiency requires the surrender of immediate action to representative action. And nowhere in the growth of a democracy is that point sooner reached than in the management of schools. When county government and state government are instituted both of these larger units, as the history of the country has shown, will exercise a certain control over the schools because both recognize that education is a county and a state function as well as a district function. The district system is, indeed, democratic. But pure democracy in education, as in our political government, is impossible. Under the township system the schools are controlled by the people of the township. The township system is, therefore, in one sense as democratic as the district system and it is far more effective. The abolishment of the district system would involve the surrender of no real democratic principle unless the preservation of a few minor offices is a matter of principle. Few would contend for the primacy of the district in matters political, in the assessment of property, the construction of roads and bridges and the care of the poor. Why, then, should it be essential in educational organization? Democracy does not imply complete local autonomy in anything.

Another argument in favor of the district system is that great results have been achieved under it. This is the universal and inevitable argument of conservatism. When a change in the form of any institution of long standing is suggested the conservative always magnifies the benefits derived from the old form and argues from these the necessity of its continuance. It therefore happens that a powerful argument for any old institution is that it exists. An established institution or custom seems to gain strength every day that it is continued and, no matter how irrational or inconvenient it is, the influence of time seems to raise the presumption of its superiority. But there is nothing that exists, no organization or institution, that has not a relative justification. Long continued existence is proof of advantage. Had no benefits been derived from the district system it could not have persisted. The district system has, as President Butler remarks, "suited the conditions of country life; it has resulted in schools adapted to the thought and wants of farming people; it has done something to educate the people themselves, parents as well as children, in civic pride and pa-

triotism; it has afforded a meeting place for the people within comfortable reach of every home."* This to most minds (not to President Butler's of course) is a sufficient justification of the existence of the district system and a sufficient reason for its continuance. The fallacy is in failing to recognize the superior benefits which might be derived from another system.

Still another argument sometimes advanced in favor of the district system, though akin to the one just mentioned, is the sentimental argument. Such phrases as "the little red school house," "the American district school," etc., have a powerful influence in the minds of the people, and the sentiment back of them will long stand in the way of any movement towards a closer and more systematic organization of our schools. But, as was previously pointed out, the district system is not essential to the existence of district schools. The best thing that can be done for the district school is to adopt the township system.

These arguments, and still others of lesser weight which might be mentioned, are simply no arguments at all from the standpoint of the educational needs of a highly developed community like that of Illinois. In such a community the school has long ceased to be an institution of merely local interest. The community like the individual does not exist for itself alone. It is a part of a larger whole and the interests of the larger whole should be the essential consideration so far as educational affairs are concerned. The people of the State should control the schools of the State. It is not a matter of indifference to one community that the schools of another community are of low grade any more than it is a matter of indifference to one farmer that another farmer neglects his farm and allows it to grow up in weeds. For the good of all, all schools should be good. But since wealth is unequally distributed there must be, under the district system, great inequality in the educational opportunities of the children of different districts—good school houses, good teachers and long terms in one district, unsuitable houses, poor teachers and short terms in another. This tends directly towards the stratification of society in classes and is, therefore, from this point of view, in the highest degree undemocratic. For this reason, if for no other, the highly developed school system is practically impossible under district organization. Whatever may be said, then, for that form of organization in regard to its past benefits and adaptation, it is no longer justified either on political or social grounds and certainly it is to be condemned from the standpoint of almost every pedagogical principle. It must, therefore, in the different states, gradually but surely give way to a more effective scheme of authoritative and administrative school organization. In Illinois it should give place at once to a system that will more nearly equalize the educational opportunities of the children of the State. There is no justification for the condition wherein the accident of a child's birth shall determine the kind of education he shall receive. The good of the State requires that every child, no matter where it is born, shall have an opportunity far better than some of the districts of the

*Education of the United States, Vol. I, pp. 8-9.

State afford for at least a common school education. The Constitution of Illinois declares that "the General Assembly shall provide a thorough and efficient system of free schools, whereby all children of this State may receive a good common school education." Under the district system, as it usually operates, this is practically impossible.

THE TOWNSHIP SYSTEM.

The town or township system is general in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio and Indiana. It is permissive in Connecticut, as already remarked, and more than half the towns in that state are under township organization. It is permissive also in Iowa, the upper peninsula of Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota and the Dakotas. In North Dakota all the counties but five are under township organization. In other states in which the township is a political unit in at least a part of the state, as in Illinois, Missouri and Nebraska, township organization is perhaps possible although there is no conscious provision for it in the school law.

The township system, of course, makes the township the unit of school government. A single school board has control of all the elementary schools of the township and also of the high school if there should be one. The township system means, or is intended to mean, the systematic organization of the schools of a township under a single authority. The methods of constituting this authority and the particular powers and duties assigned to it vary considerably. Control is sometimes lodged in a school committee, as in Massachusetts, Maine and Rhode Island, sometimes in a board of education as in New Hampshire, New Jersey and Ohio. In Pennsylvania and Vermont a board of directors is the central authority. In Indiana it is a single trustee. The following table is designed to present the main facts in regard to the form of town or township organization in those states in which it has in any large measure displaced the district system.

TABLE II.

Showing the Title, Number, Method of Appointment or Election, Term of Office and the Most Important Powers and Duties of Town or Township School Officers in States Under Town or Township Organization.

State.	Title.	No.	Election or appointment.	Term.	Powers and Duties.
Connecticut	Committee	3 6 9 12	By people	1 3	1. To manage school property of town. 2. To examine, employ and dismiss teachers. 3. To enforce child-labor law. 4. To purchase text books if directed by town. 5. To superintend high schools. 6. To provide evening school instruction
Indiana	Trustees	1	By people	1 4	1. To employ teachers. 2. To locate and establish schools, and to build and furnish school houses. 3. To establish a graded high school. 4. To have care and custody of school property. 5. To discontinue schools with average attendance of 15 or fewer (obligatory if average attendance is 12 or fewer). 6. To report to county superintendent Note—A director for each school is elected by the people or appointed by the trustees and acts under the direction of the trustees
Iowa*	Bd. of Direct's	5	By people	3	1. To prescribe course of study. 2. To make rules for governing of directors of sub-districts, teachers and pupils, and for the care of school property. 3. To locate school sites and to build or repair school houses. 4. To employ or to dismiss teachers and to authorize sub-directors to employ. 5. To visit schools. 6. To expel pupils. 7. To furnish books to indigent children
Maine	Committee	3	By people	3	1. To have general management of schools and care and custody of school property. 2. To elect superintendent of schools who has power to examine and employ teachers. 3. To prescribe uniform series of text books. 4. To expel pupils or exclude them if not vaccinated Note—The superintendent of the town is ex officio secretary of the school committee and is clothed with important powers. Two or more towns may unite to elect a superintendent

*The Iowa system is a combination of the township system and the district system. About two-thirds of the state is under the township system.

Table 2—Continued.

State.	Title.	No.	Election or appointment.	Term.	Powers and Duties.
Massachusetts	Committee....	3	By people....	3	1. To examine, employ and dismiss teachers. 2. To visit schools. 3. To prescribe course of study and text books, and to loan text books free of charge. 4. To elect a town superintendent of schools. 5. To supervise athletic organizations
Michigan— {Upper Penin- sula}	Trustees	5	By people....	3	1. To purchase sites and to erect and furnish school buildings. 2. To employ teachers. 3. To provide books for district libraries. 4. To make by-laws relating to taking school census, and to visiting schools..
N. Hampshire	Board, moder- ator, clerk, treasurer, au- ditor, etc....	3 6 9	By people....	3	1. To elect superintendent and clothe him with such powers as may be deemed advisable. 2. To employ and dismiss teachers. 3. To prescribe regulations for management, studies, classification and discipline of schools. 5. To examine teachers. 6. To purchase and loan text books free of charge. 7. To report to selectmen and to Superintendent of Public Instruction.....
New Jersey...	Board.....	9 5 3	By people....	3	1. To employ and dismiss teachers. 2. To make rules for government of schools. 3. To purchase, sell and improve school grounds. 4. To select text books, and with county superintendent prescribe course of study. 5. To suspend or expel pupils. 6. To provide text books and school supplies. 7. To report to county superintendent
N. Dakota....	Directors	3	By people....	4	See under Table 1—North Dakota has township organization in all counties but five..
Ohio	Board.....	5	By people....	4	1. To make rules for government of schools. 2. To employ superintendent of district, and teachers. 3. To centralize schools when authorized by vote
					Note—In township districts a director is elected by the people who acts under the direction of the township board...

Table 2—Concluded.

State.	Title.	No.	Election or appointment.	Term.	Powers and Duties.
Pennsylvania	Directors and controllers..	2 to 8	By people....	3	1. To establish common schools and kindergartens. 2. To make rules to prevent introduction and spread of contagious or infectious diseases. 3. To appoint truant officers. 4. To levy tax and borrow money for building purposes. 5. To adopt and purchase series of text books, and direct what branches shall be taught. 6. To visit schools. 7. To employ teachers. 8. To elect county superintendent. 9. To report to county superintendent
Rhode Island.	Committee....	3 to 7	By people....	3	1. To elect superintendent and teachers. 2. To alter and discontinue school districts. 3. To locate and furnish school houses. 4. To visit schools. 5. To make rules for government and management of schools. 6. To suspend pupils. 7. To change text books.....
Vermont.....	Directors.....	3	By people....	3	1. To have care of school property and management of schools. 2. To determine number of schools. 3. To employ teachers. 4. To purchase sites and build school houses when authorized by vote.....

TYPICAL TOWNSHIP SYSTEMS.

As Massachusetts was the first to adopt the town system and as the system there is possibly the most effective system of rural school organization in the country, we present the plan of its organization more fully than it appears in the table. Every town in Massachusetts elects annually a member or members of a school committee. This committee consists of three persons or a multiple of three. Women are eligible to the office. The powers and duties of the committee are extensive. It has general charge and superintendence of all the public schools, industrial schools, evening schools and evening high schools. It may determine the number of weeks in each year and the hours during which such evening schools shall be kept, and may make regulations in regard to attendance at these schools. It has full power not merely in regard to the employment and dismissal of teachers and their tenure of office, but also in regard to their examination. It directs what books shall be used in the public schools and prescribes, as far as possible, the course of studies and the exercises to be pursued in them. It purchases at the expense of the town the text books and other school supplies used in the public schools, and if instruction is given in the use of tools and in cooking it may purchase and loan the

tools, implements and materials that are necessary. It even supervises and controls all the athletic organizations of the public schools. Formerly it was required to visit and inspect the schools, but it has relieved itself wholly of that duty by the employment of a superintendent. If no such school officer is employed, however, the committee or one of its members must visit each school in its town on some day during the first week after the opening of the school for the purpose of organizing and making a careful examination of the school and of ascertaining that the pupils are properly supplied with books, and also on some day during the two weeks preceding the close of the school. Visits to schools without town superintendents must be made each month without giving previous notice of the visit to the instructors.

The benefits of the town system in Massachusetts are the same as the benefits of the system elsewhere. They have been summed up by T. M. Balliet, formerly of Springfield, Mass., but now of New York University, as follows: "1. Uniformity of text books. 2. The hiring of teachers by the town committee which is less influenced by local sentiment than a district committee or a prudential committeeman would be. 3. The erecting of better school houses. When the town, as a whole, must pay for the erecting of a schoolhouse, the very jealousy which the district system develops, prompts people to demand better school houses than they themselves would be willing to pay for. In most towns there is a village in which most of the taxable property is found. The rural sections of the town, therefore, benefit by voting a higher tax for schoolhouses by which the people of the village must contribute to the cost of school houses in the rural districts. 4. Supervision of schools by experts is made possible. While the rural schools of Massachusetts, up to 1888, had poorer supervision than the schools of the middle states and many of the western states, where county supervision has prevailed for many years, since 1888 there has been developed in Massachusetts a system of town supervision which is probably the best system of supervision of rural schools in the country. Under this system, two or three towns which are too poor individually to pay a superintendent, may combine and engage a superintendent in common. All towns also receive some aid from the state to make up the salary of the superintendent. This law was originally permissive; in 1892 it was made compulsory. As early as 1869 a law was passed permitting towns to pay for the transportation of pupils from thinly settled sections to the more densely settled sections. In this way, provision was made for the gradual concentration of the schools of thinly settled towns. This law was a necessary accompaniment to the later law abolishing the district system and paved the way for the final abolition."*

The township systems in Pennsylvania and in Indiana are quite different from that of Massachusetts. In Pennsylvania there is a district board of school directors elected for three years. This board employs teachers, grades the schools, prescribes the course of study and the

*Bulletin No. 33, New York State Educational Department, p. 37.

text books, visits schools, establishes schools and builds houses, levies taxes for school and school buildings, publishes a financial statement and elects the county superintendent. In Indiana the authority over the schools of the township is centered in one officer, the school trustee, who is elected by the people for two years. This officer performs all the duties ordinarily assigned to a township board and has power to close all schools in which the average attendance is less than fifteen. He must close a school if the average attendance is less than twelve. Township centralization has thus been carried farther in Indiana than in any other state. It has probably been carried too far. The supreme court of the state has declared that "the township trustee is clothed with almost autocratic powers in all school matters. The voters and tax payers of the township have little, if indeed any voice, or part in the control of the details of educational affairs. So far as actual authority is concerned the trustee is the corporation, although in contemplation of law it is otherwise."* Indiana has perhaps illustrated in its form of township organization the truth of the old adage that there can be too much even of a good thing.

THE COUNTY SYSTEM.

The remaining unit of school organization is the county. The adoption of this unit in some of the southern states arose perhaps not from a conscious effort to adopt the school organization to the educational needs of the State, but from the fact that the district and township as political units did not exist. County organization is effective in some of the states and is looked upon by many educationists with favor. Superintendent Stockwell of North Dakota says, (Report 1905-6, page 27), "A county board of education elected by the people and controlling the educational affairs of the county especially as to the rural school would be a long step in advance so far as the result upon educational progress is concerned. The board would elect as its professional adviser a county superintendent of schools who would direct, subject to the approval of the county board of education, the strictly educational affairs of the county. That portion of the work which pertains to the levying of taxes, issuing of bonds, building and repairing of school houses, would be under the control of the board." He advances the following arguments in favor of such a board: "First, this board is responsible to the people; second, it means a uniform standard of education for each county; third, under the direction of the State and county superintendents, it would mean a uniform standard for the State; fourth, it would result in wiser and more economical (in the best sense) expenditure of school moneys; sixth, the county system is in vogue in many of our states and is uniformly acceptable." President Seerley of the Iowa State Normal School recommends to the Iowa Educational Commission the adoption of the county as a unit, ex-

*Quoted in the Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1894-5, Vol. II, p. 1460, foot note.

cluding therefrom the present city and town organizations.* We find also that in Georgia, for instance, where the county unit has had a thorough trial, it has given satisfaction. Superintendent Lawton B. Evans of Richmond county, Georgia, in an article in the *Educational Review*, April, 1906, (Reprinted in part in report of N. E. A., 1897, page 507) argues very strongly for the county system and presents the successful educational work of his own county as proof of its efficiency.

The chief argument against the county system is that the county is too large a unit, as the district is too small a unit. It lends itself well to the systematic organization of school forces, but the county perhaps is too large an area for the highest administrative efficiency of a single authority.

At all events the question of adopting county organization in Illinois is perhaps an impractical one. For this reason, and for the further reason that we believe the township system most nearly approximates the ideal, it has not been considered worth while to enter upon an extended discussion of the county system. We append, however, a conspectus of the district organization of the counties in the various states that have adopted the county system.

TABLE III.

Showing the Title, Number, Method of Appointment or Election, Term of Office and the Most Important Powers and Duties of District School Officers in States under County Organization.

State.	Title.	No.	Election or appointment.	Term.	Powers and Duties.
California.....	Trustees.....	3	By people....	3	1. To prescribe and enforce rules not inconsistent with law or those prescribed by State Board of Education. 2. To manage and control school property. 3. To supply text books to indigent children. 4. To rent, furnish, repair and insure school property. 5. To employ teachers. 6. To report to county superintendent.
Florida.....	Supervisor....	1	By county b'd	4	1. To supervise work and management of school, construction, rental, repair, etc., of school buildings, and report to Board of Public Instruction. 2. To co-operate with teacher in efforts to elevate standard of school. 3. To review suspensions..... Note—In special school districts trustees are elected and vested with the power of the supervisor.....
Georgia.....	Trustees.....	3	By people....	3	1. To supervise schools. 2. To recommend teachers to county board. 3. To visit schools. 4. To report to county board...

*Midland Schools, February, 1908, p. 178.

Table III—Concluded.

State.	Title.	No.	Election or appointment.	Term.	Powers and Duties.
Louisiana.....	Visiting Trustees.....	1	By parish b'd.	1. To make quarterly reports to parish boards of the condition of schools, and needful suggestions in regard to schools
Maryland.....	Trustees.....	3	By co. school. commiss'ers.	1	1. To have care of schools and school property. 2. To employ a principal teacher, subject to confirmation of county board. 3. To visit schools. 4. To exercise general supervision over schools.....
N. Carolina...	Committee ...	3	By county b'd	2	1. To take school census. 2. To have care and control of school property. 3. To employ teachers
					Note — Some counties have adopted the township system so that the committees appointed are township committees
Oregon	Directors.....	3*	By people	3	1. To audit claims against district. 2. To employ teachers. 3. To control school property. 4. To suspend and dismiss pupils
S. Carolina....	Trustees.....	3	By county b'd	2	1. To have management and control of schools. 2. To visit schools. 3. To provide school houses. 4. To employ teachers. 5. To suspend or dismiss pupils
Tennessee	Advisory b'd.	3	By people	2	1. To visit schools. 2. To make recommendations to county board. 3. To take school census. 4. To suspend and dismiss pupils. 5. To report to county board
					Note—Each county is divided into five districts.....

*Five in districts of first class.

TOWNSHIP ORGANIZATION.

The tendency in the administration of school affairs is toward the establishment of a unit of school organization larger than the district. In a score of states the superiority of the town or township as the unit of organization has been recognized and the town or township system is in operation in the whole or in a part of each of these states. In Michigan, a state in which the township system is permissive in the northern peninsula, the superintendent of public instruction, in a recent bulletin addressed to the population of the rural districts, advocates the extension of the system and declares the township to be the logical unit of school organization. "The district system," he says, "was founded a good many years ago, and while it may have been wise and effective for our forefathers, we believe that it is neither wise nor effective in this generation."* The Kansas Educational Commission, in its report of December, 1908, recommends the adoption in that state of the township system, and expresses its belief that "the proposition of a larger unit of school organization is fundamental and absolutely essential to the real progress and development of the schools." Several of the southern states and some of the extreme western states make the county the unit of organization and the county system is recommended by the Iowa Educational Commission in a report made to the present session of the Iowa legislature. Everywhere the tendency is away from the district system.

John Fiske said that the township system of political government is "the kind of government that people are sure to prefer when they have once tried it under favorable conditions." The same thing may perhaps be truthfully said of township school organization. There has been no reversion to the district system in any place after the township system has been thoroughly tried. The present State Commissioner of common schools of Ohio in speaking in his report of 1905 in regard to the merits of the system says, "the present law makes the township the unit and gives the board of education an opportunity to provide the best and most efficient system of schools for the township as a whole. I believe a return to the sub-district plan would be a long step backward in our educational work." We have failed to find a single authoritative opinion unfavorable to the township system. The committee

*Township Unit System in Michigan, by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. Bulletin No. 32, 1909.

on state school systems appointed by the National Education Association reported that "The substitution of the township for the district as the unit of organization is absolutely essential to the highest good of the ungraded schools." The committee sent out a circular letter to the superintendents of the various states and in its report it quotes replies from thirteen of these school officers strongly favoring the township as the unit of organization and says that "with but few exceptions" the judgment of all the superintendents from whom replies were received is the same. The superintendent of Pennsylvania says, "We prefer the township organization to the district and county organization," and the superintendent of Indiana uses almost the same language as that previously quoted from the commissioner of Ohio. "We..... should consider it taking a long step backward to drop the township and take up the district system again." The superintendents of states not under district organization expressed the opinion that the substitution of the township for the district as the unit of the system would result in the increased efficiency of the common schools. The committee on rural schools appointed by the National Educational Association in 1895 presented its report in 1897. For the preparation of their report four sub-committees were appointed. One of these sub-committees devoted some space to the enforcement of the proposition that "The township unit system is far superior to the district system, and should be substituted, if practicable, for that system wherever it exists." And the general committee reported as the result of its investigation that "for purposes of organization, maintenance, or supervision nothing should be recognized as the unit smaller than the township or the county; the school district is the most undesirable unit possible." This, we believe, is the conclusion to which anyone will arrive who will give the subject careful study.

ADVANTAGES OF THE TOWNSHIP SYSTEM.

The various arguments advanced to prove the superiority of the township system of school organization over the district system may be classified and arranged under three general propositions. First, the township system is more economical. Second, the township system tends toward a more equitable provision of educational opportunities for the children of the township, and, third, the township is more conducive to the general improvement of the schools. Under the first proposition the following arguments may be included:

1. It is financially less expensive than the district system, for the same reasons that a large business is relatively less expensive than a small business.
2. It greatly reduces the number of school officials.
3. It tends to the discontinuance of schools that have become too small to be operated efficiently, and thus tends to diminish the expense of school maintenance.
4. It prevents the unnecessary duplication of school facilities including the building of school houses.
5. It relieves the county superintendent of a large amount of clerical work and thus economizes energy which may be devoted to school supervision.

6. It prevents the wear and tear of petty jealousies, strife and contention between districts. There would be no more disputes about district boundaries.

7. It would allow children to attend the school most convenient.

8. It would establish a uniform rate of taxation throughout the township, and thus facilitate the levying and collecting of taxes.

9. It would economize effort in the matter of securing accurate school statistics.

10. It would lessen the number and cost of elections.

Under the proposition in regard to a more equitable distribution of school opportunities the following arguments may be grouped:

1. As it would equalize the burden of taxation, it would render it possible to distribute school funds in inverse ratio to the wealth of the township, thus giving to the poorer districts the wealth to equip and support a good school. A few districts in a township now reap practically all the advantage of the railroad taxes levied within the towns.

2. It would tend to equality of school provisions in respect to school houses, school grounds, apparatus, length of school terms and the ability and character of the teachers.

3. Since the township system tends to the employment of teachers for longer terms it will restrict in a considerable degree the evils that flow from frequent changes of teachers.

Closely related to these arguments are those which fall under the proposition in regard to the educational improvements that follow the adoption of the township system. These are:

1. The number of schools being reduced and the number of pupils being increased under the township system there would be better classification, grading and teaching and an increasing interest and enthusiasm on the part of the pupils.

2. The township system is the only means by which we can hope to attain the township supervision which is essential to the highest school efficiency.

3. The township system makes possible a complete system of township schools, including both elementary and advanced.

4. In all probability more interested school officers would be elected.

It is perhaps unnecessary to speak at length of the grounds upon which these various arguments in favor of the township system are based or to present the facts by which they are supported. We shall offer a few remarks, however, bearing upon the main propositions.

First, then, in regard to the superior economy of the township system. By economy we mean not only a saving of money but a saving of time and energy as well. The *a priori* arguments on this proposition are conclusive. A system which reduces the number of school buildings, school officers and school teachers, to the actual needs of the township—in a word, which systematizes educational effort—must necessarily be less expensive for the same services than the system under which expenses and effort are unnecessarily duplicated. The economy of relatively large units of organization is no longer a matter of doubt. There has been considerable discussion of this phase of the question, however, which is necessarily complicated, and there may be those who will deny the actual superiority of the township system so far as financial economy is concerned. Let us therefore look at this phase of the subject a little more closely.

It seems probable that under the township system the financial management of the schools of the various districts would be more open to

public observation and consequently more subject to public criticism than the separate management of boards of directors. This would tend to increase the efficiency of financial management, that is, make it less productive of waste. Be that as it may, however, under the township system schools which have become too small to be carried on efficiently would be closed. The expense of operating these schools, of employing teachers, purchasing supplies, etc., would be saved. The expense involved in schooling the children elsewhere would be less than that of maintaining the small schools, otherwise there would not be a financial incentive to close them. Here at least is a distinct saving. Moreover supplies, maps, globes, apparatus, books, incidentals, fuel, etc., would be purchased for the whole township at once, and it is fair to assume that they would be obtained at a lower price. This is another saving. Again, there would be fewer elections under the township system and every election eliminated would diminish in some degree the school expenses of the township. It is clear, then, that the efficiency of the schools remaining the same the township system must necessarily be somewhat less expensive than the district system.

If, then, it is found in any particular case that the schools actually cost more under the township system than they did under the district system, it must be due to the fact that school facilities are better, school terms are longer, and school teachers receive a higher wage. It is almost impossible to institute a fair comparison for the reason that under the township system invariably the efficiency of the schools is increased. "As to the cost of the two systems," says the secretary of the Connecticut State Board of Education, "it must always be said that the two can not be justly compared except by going over a period of years. When towns enter upon the town system they are likely to increase expenses, if their previous expenses have been stingy and inadequate. On the contrary, if under the district system they have been liberal the economy which the town system permits will enable them to reduce their expenses. It follows then that you would have to know the policy under the district system before you could judge whether the town system had made a difference in the case. The tendency in the large districts in this State is to become practically independent and to support the schools liberally under the district system. There are agents of directness, power to borrow money, etc., which make it possible to secure appropriations in large districts. The tendency in small districts is to diminish the cost because there are few children. As a result, taking the average district, the town system shows in this State very much better schools so far as instruction is concerned as well as more efficient administration." Similarly Mr. Frank A. Hill, formerly secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, said, "I do not think it will be possible without a great deal of special investigation to furnish figures or statistics to show that the town plan is either cheaper or more expensive than the district plan. The expenditures for schools in Massachusetts have been gradually increasing, because of better buildings, better sanitation, better equipment, better teachers and better salaries. I have a strong conviction, however, that the same amount

of money may be made to go much farther under town management than under district in the way of securing greater efficiency in the schools." Maine has been under the township system since 1893, with ample opportunity for observation. W. W. Stetson, formerly State superintendent of public schools in that state has arrived at the following conclusion: "There can be no question but that for an equal length of terms if all the services rendered and materials furnished are paid for the township system is much more economical than the district system."* This is a conclusion which, as we believe, is incontrovertible.

It must be perfectly obvious that there can be no fair comparison between the two systems financially without a consideration of the educational facilities provided and the educational results achieved. If it were determined, for instance, that the schools of Massachusetts or Indiana actually cost more per capita than the schools of Arkansas or Mississippi it would be illogical to conclude that the school systems of the latter states are more economical than those of the former. Economy is not determined by a comparison of amounts actually spent, but by a comparison of the results actually achieved by the same amount of expenditures. The financial phase of this question is, therefore, always more or less involved. Differences in administrative efficiency and in educational results must always be taken into consideration. Moreover, the equalization of the tax rate in a township, which would obtain under the township system, must necessarily raise the rate in some districts and lower it in others. A district which pays little or nothing for schools could hardly expect any system of organization adopted with the expectation of increasing the efficiency of the schools of the State to diminish its own rate of taxation. No sort of juggling of tax rates, however, can obscure these facts, that the township system, the efficiency of the schools remaining the same, is less expensive than the district system, and that it is, from the viewpoint of the welfare of the State and the children of the State, far superior to the district system. The financial phase of this question then, while it is important, is not the most important phase of it. What are the relative educational effects produced by the two systems? This is the important question. The great superiority of the township system rests upon educational grounds rather than upon financial grounds.

As to the superior economy of energy under the township system it is only necessary to recall the enormous number of men required to control and manage the schools of a state under the district system. In Ohio, for instance, previous to the adoption of the township system there were about 15,000 teachers employed to teach the common schools of the State at the same time more than 35,000 school directors and members of boards of education who were engaged in the administration of the schools. In Missouri there are 10,365 rural school teachers and about 28,000 school directors. In Illinois today there are only 28,083 teachers while there are about 45,000 school officers. There are 1,882 townships, and 11,797 districts. Under the township system, 1,882

*The opinions above quoted may be found in the Report of the National Educational Association for 1897, pp. 509-10.

township boards would perform the duties now assigned to 11,797 boards of directors. This would certainly be an economy of time and energy.

There is another respect, previously referred to but worthy of still further consideration, in which the economy of township organization would early manifest itself, and that is in the closing of small and poorly equipped schools. In Illinois there are thirty-two districts which have no schools at all. There are 106 schools with fewer than five pupils, 589 with fewer than ten and 1,460 with fewer than fifteen. In one district at least in one of the counties of the State there is not a single child of school age, but of course there is no school in that district. In a district in another county there is but one child of school age. There is probably, however, in each district a school house. A superintendent of Illinois says that in visiting four schools in succession in one day he found that the total enrollment of the four was only thirteen. It must be perfectly obvious that to operate schools of this character is a waste of public funds. Such schools may be found, however, in every state organized under the district system. In Wisconsin in 1906 thirty-two schools enrolled less than five pupils, two hundred and thirty-eight more than ten and less than sixteen. In Missouri in 1907 there were five hundred and fifty-five districts enumerating less than twenty pupils. In Arkansas in 1906 four hundred and sixty-two schools enrolled less than eleven pupils. In Wisconsin two hundred and seventy enrolled less than that number. In Kansas seventy-eight schools have an enrollment of five or less, four hundred and seventy-four an enrollment between five and ten, and one thousand and forty-nine between ten and fifteen. In Michigan in 1902 fifty-one schools of the State having only two pupils or fewer had no schools at all. Eighty-three schools of the southern peninsula had five pupils or fewer and an average attendance of three, and one thousand and four schools had fifteen pupils or fewer with an average attendance of eight. The cost per pupil of maintaining these small schools was on the average \$7.05 or \$70.50 for a term of ten months, while the average cost per pupil in the city schools of Michigan was never more than \$19.40 per year of ten months, including the high schools. The average cost was, of course, much less. Under the township system the schools which have become so small that it is impossible to carry them on efficiently would be closed. In Indiana the law compels the closing of all schools with fewer than twelve pupils and permits the closing of all with fewer than fifteen pupils. Under such a law in Illinois six hundred and ninety-five schools would have to be closed and two thousand one hundred and fifty-five might be closed. The saving that would follow is obvious.

It is not to be understood, however, that the township system of itself necessitates the closing of any schools whatever. The township system should not be identified with the consolidation of schools. The relation between the two extends no farther than this, that the township system facilitates the consolidation of schools whenever it becomes desirable. The economy of school consolidation is not here under

discussion. It may be said in passing, however, that if, as is claimed, consolidation is more economical than the present plan, it goes to show that the township system which permits consolidation, though it does not require it, is all the more superior so far as economy is concerned.

So much for economy. Now a few words in regard to the tendency of the township system to facilitate the establishment of high schools in townships in which such schools are desired by the people and to promote a more effective supervision of the rural schools. As to the high schools, the commissioner of Rhode Island, prior to the abolishment of district schools in that state, said that "As fast as our towns have abolished the district system by their own vote, they at once began to consider the matter of a high school. So long as the districts exist, we shall not have high schools; but if we can get rid of the districts, we shall ultimately be able to provide school facilities for the greater part, if not for all, of the children of the state." This would seem to have been the case in the other states that have adopted the township system. In Pennsylvania, for instance, there are over two hundred township high schools. In Illinois there are only about fifty.* In Ohio in 1905 there were 892 high schools, 277 of which were of the first grade, that is, covering a period of not less than four years of not less than thirty-two weeks each in which not less than sixteen courses are required for graduation. In Massachusetts every town containing five hundred families is required by law to maintain a high school. Other towns may maintain such schools and on certain conditions receive aid from the state to the amount of \$300. Thirty-seven towns received such aid in 1906. If a town is not required by law to maintain a high school it must make provision for high school instruction in an adjoining town. Under certain conditions the town is reimbursed by the state for the whole or for half the cost of such instruction. One hundred towns sending 1,077 pupils were reimbursed wholly or in part by the state last year under the provisions of this law. Only thirteen towns in Massachusetts have no pupils receiving high school instruction and these towns contain only 789 children between the ages of five and fifteen. It is significant that a good high school law and a large number of township high schools are invariably found in the states under township organization. Under such organization the high school is naturally and necessarily articulated with the rural schools. It is a part of the system. The township high school so articulated will probably save more to the farmers of a township in tuition, board, clothing and other expenses involved in sending their children away to school, than they ordinarily pay in taxes.

As to township supervision, Mr. Balliet has already been quoted to the effect that the Massachusetts system is probably the best in the country. That system is briefly as follows: The school committee of a city or town may employ at its own expense a superintendent of schools who, under the direction and control of the committee, shall have the care and supervision of the public schools. The compensation of such

*There are, of course, in Illinois about 460 high schools, including all three-year high schools. The number of township high schools in Pennsylvania given above does not include the borough and city high schools.

superintendent is determined by the school committee. Two or more towns by vote of each may form a district for the purpose of employing a superintendent. Suitable provisions are made for the union of the smaller towns into a supervision district without a vote of the people. In the formation of such unions the various school committees act as a joint committee and a union once made can be dissolved only after three years from its formation by a vote of a majority of the towns constituting the union. Towns thus uniting receive state aid not only in the payment of the superintendent but also of teachers employed in the public schools. According to the report of the secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education only two towns in all Massachusetts in 1906 disregarded the requirement of the law providing for the employment of a school superintendent.

Other states have followed the example of Massachusetts with respect to township supervision. In Connecticut, for instance, two or more towns together employing not less than twenty-five nor more than fifty teachers may unite by vote of the town school committee, (or school visitors or board of education as the case may be) for the purpose of employing a superintendent of schools, and towns so united shall form a supervision district. The state pays half the salary of superintendents so employed, providing such salary does not exceed \$1,600.00 per year. The town school committee or board of visitors or board of education of any town employing not more than ten teachers may petition the state board of education, or by vote request it, to appoint an agent to discharge the duties of superintendent. The superintendent so appointed is paid one-fourth of his salary by the town and three-fourths by the state. Both in Massachusetts and in Connecticut special qualifications are required for the office of superintendent. In Connecticut no one is eligible to the office of town superintendent who has not had at least five years' successful experience as a teacher or superintendent or who does not hold a certificate of approval granted by the state board of education.

A high school law similar to that of Connecticut was enacted in New Hampshire in 1899. "This law," says the superintendent of New Hampshire, "is permissive and not mandatory in its nature. It places upon the principle of expert supervision the stamp of the state's approval, backs up that approval by meeting the towns half way in the matter of expense, and then leaves the adoption of the principle to be decided by the wishes of each local district."* In Maine the school committee of two or more towns having under their care and custody an aggregate of not less than twenty nor more than fifty schools may unite in the employment of a superintendent when authorized by a vote of the towns.

In Pennsylvania in a township with 4,000 or more inhabitants the board may appoint a supervising principal who shall have general supervision of the schools of the township. Among the weak points in the Indiana system is the absence of township supervision. If the prediction that the township system is to become general is fulfilled, it is

*New Hampshire School report, 1905-6, p. 177.

inevitable that the principle of township supervision will everywhere prevail. If expert supervision is essential to city schools it is obvious that it can be no less essential to the efficiency of rural schools. Once adopted in a state it will not be long in extending itself into every portion of it. Within fourteen years after the township supervision was adopted in Massachusetts ninety-four per cent of all the teachers and ninety-six per cent of all children of the state were under the supervision of an educational expert. The question of the value of such supervision is not an open one in Massachusetts. Legislation in regard to expert supervision has consequently passed the permissive state, and such supervision since 1902 has been compulsory upon all towns and cities. The promotion of township high schools and the encouragement of township school supervision are, then, the almost invariable accompaniments of the township system of organization. This alone places upon it the stamp of superiority.

OBJECTIONS.

The objections most frequently urged against township organization are the following: The township system would take the control of the school out of the hands of the people, a township board would not manifest the same interest in the district school as a board elected by the voters of the district only; the township unit means higher taxes; the township system means the closing of schools, the transportation of pupils and consequently hard roads. Let us consider these objections, taking them up in the inverse order of that in which they have just been presented.

The objection that the township system of school organization involves the question of taxation for hard roads is based on a misconception of what the township system really is. The misconception arises from the supposition that the township system of school organization necessarily involves the consolidation of schools and the transportation of pupils. This is a mistake, the township system does not mean the consolidation of schools, but the unification of school management. We could have township organization without closing a single school. It is probable, however, that under the township system the people of some townships would vote now and then to close a school which had become inefficient. Certainly they ought to do so in the interest of the children of such schools. But if so, it would be of their own action and entirely incidental to township organization. The commission has expressed the opinion that schools containing an enrollment of less than ten pupils should be closed and this opinion is supported by the experience and practice of other states. But, as has been seen, the form of organization proposed by the commission does not include even that provision. The objection, though invalid, is one which naturally arises, and which has been met within every attempt to introduce the township system. The present superintendent of schools of Vermont, in speaking on this same point, says "the present law was born amid much apprehension and misapprehension. The fear was that a reckless consolidation of schools

would ensue. This is antagonistic to its spirit. It means consolidation of management; not schools, except in cases where the larger profit to pupils unquestionably justifies the action.”*

“Another misapprehension,” said he “was largely increased expense.”

This brings us to the objection that the township system involves increased taxation. The answer which comes from all the states which have adopted it is that it does not. In Vermont, for instance, in the year following the adoption of the town system the children of the state received 6411.2 additional weeks of schooling, and the average cost per week was reduced from \$11.69 to \$10.90.

It is easy to show that if the school facilities remain the same the cost of operating the schools under the township system could not be greater than under the district system. If, for instance, a township has ten schools, employs ten teachers, and has ten boards of school directors, necessitating ten elections annually, and purchases its supplies through ten different channels, it is contrary to reason to suppose that its expenses would not be diminished by uniting the management of its schools under one board of directors requiring but one annual election and by purchasing its supplies in large quantities through one channel. But it is not supposed that the school facilities would long remain the same. One of the chief merits of the township system is that under it they increase. Now, it is possible, even probable, that in time this increase would raise the expenditure of the township to the amount required under the district system, or beyond it. Such increase, however, would depend chiefly upon the growth of interest and pride which the people of the township would manifest in their schools, and the extent of these of course, can not be accurately predicted. It is, therefore, absolutely impossible for anyone to say whether in a year, two years, or at any given time in the future the tax rate under the township system would be above or below the level of taxation under the district system. All that can be positively asserted is that at the same rates of taxation the township system will provide better school facilities than the district system. This may be shown both by calculation and by the evidence from other states which have adopted the township system, and this alone is sufficient to justify the commission’s recommendation.

Not only does the township system secure better schools than the district system, but it makes possible a development of schools which could never take place under the district system. The prime object of a system of school organization with respect to taxes is not the reduction of taxation, but the more economical use of the taxes raised for school purposes, and this is attained by the township system. It means an equal distribution of the burden of taxation throughout the territory adopting the system, and consequently the taxes of some persons would be increased under it and those of others diminished. It means also an equal distribution of taxes levied and consequently an equal distribution of school privileges. It should, therefore, appeal particularly to the rural population of the State, for it is obvious on the most casual

*Vermont School Report, 1893-4, p. 69.

consideration that the children in towns and cities enjoy superior educational opportunities to the children of those who live in the country. The country people of the State have more to gain from the township system than any other class of citizens.

In regard to the third objection, namely, that a township board of school directors would be less interested in the district school than a local board of directors, it seems plausible enough, and yet a careful consideration will show that it is almost wholly without foundation. It assumes what is not true, and that is that interest in the work of a district school depends upon one's geographical relation to it. It is not even true that a man who sends children to a school has necessarily a greater interest in that school than one who does not. Interest in a particular school depends upon an interest in schools generally, and such interest is due to one's natural bent or is called forth by one's professional duties. It is often times a peculiar personal attribute, and is found highly developed now and then in men and women who are childless. It is an interest, too, which is developed by responsibility. The objection assumes that a school director is more deeply interested in his school and will look more carefully after its welfare than, for instance, the county superintendent of schools. Everybody knows that this is not the case. The county superintendent, because of his professional relationship to the school work in general, is, as a rule, more deeply interested in all questions affecting the progress of the district schools of his county than the directors themselves. Everybody knows that this is the case. So it is to be expected that a township board of directors, because of their increased responsibility and wider professional duties, would manifest greater interest in individual schools than is found among boards of school directors as they are now constituted. This has been proven in those states which have adopted the township system. On the other hand, the increased responsibility of the school directors under the township plan would lead the people themselves to be more particular with respect to the professional interest and intelligence of the men selected for that position. Thus there would be a double tendency under the township system towards increasing the interest and efficiency of school directors. It should be remembered, too, that interest in a school is not sufficient. It must be an intelligent interest. Interest in a school sometimes amounts to nothing more than interference with the school. The experience of other states has shown that under the township system more efficient school officers are secured. People who are most deeply and intelligently interested in an institution do not insist on managing it themselves, but are anxious to entrust its management to the most efficient officers that can be selected. Thus this objection, which is one of the first to occur to those who begin to think about the two systems of school organization, completely breaks down.

Finally, we have the objection that the township system takes the control of the schools out of the hands of the people.

This objection betrays an entire misconception of the nature of popular government and also of what the township system really is. The township system merely proposes to reduce the number of representatives

elected to carry out the popular will. It would increase the territorial area from which these representatives are chosen. But since such representatives would still be elected by the people the control of the schools would be left in the hands of the people. It is surely a fact that local government does not depend upon the area of the territorial unit from which representatives are chosen. If under our present system two districts are consolidated, would that affect the participation of the people in the school affairs of those districts? Obviously not. If it did, it might be shown by the same reasoning that to divide a district would make the government still more democratic, which is absurd. School government, like other forms of government, must necessarily be representative, and its democratic nature is not effected in the least by making the township the unit instead of the district. Does the fact that the town is the unit in the making of roads, the building of bridges, the care of the poor, the levying and collecting of taxes, for town purposes, etc., indicate that in these matters the people have surrendered any of their authority? Certainly not, and so if the people should decide to make the township instead of the district the unit of school organization and administration and elect fewer representatives to look after their interests, they would merely adopt a more efficient system for the exercise of a particular governmental function and would surrender not one iota of the power now lodged in them. As another has said, "the courts prevent 'vice and immorality' by stimulating fear through punishment. The schools prevent 'vice and immorality' by developing in the child moral power. It is a strange absurdity, an amazing inconsistency, to hold that the criminal law must be administered by town and State officers, but that the laws relating to the schools and education must be administered by officers chosen by small districts or divisions of towns. The delegation of power over the schools to small localities or neighborhoods in towns, which the founders of the state intended should be vested in and exercised by the towns, under the general control of the State has caused, and in one way and another at this time, is causing, nearly all the trouble in our schools. This delegation of power to educate to inefficient agents, (a) has produced the small school; (b) it has produced inequality of taxation; (c) it has produced inequality of school privileges. We must have a permanent and progressive school system. We never shall have one until it is placed on a sound financial basis. There can be no sound financial basis without equal taxation for the support of the common schools."*

Another illustration may help to show how thoroughly unfounded is the claim that the district system is essential to popular control of the schools. East St. Louis, for instance, has twenty-two schools, Quincy fifteen and Rockford, Peoria and Danville nineteen each. Each of these cities is a single district. The schools in each are managed by a single board of education. Now if the district system alone is democratic the people of these cities have been deprived of the rights which naturally belong to them as members of a democratic community. Each ward should be a separate district with its own board of directors. They

*Edwin F. Palmer, *Vermont School Report, 1893-4*, pp. 68-9.

should, therefore, divide these cities into as many districts as there are schools, and the people in the small division containing a school should elect their own directors. Why don't they do it? Is it not because they know that they have been deprived of their rights, but that in making the entire city a single district with a single board of directors they have merely adopted a system of school organization far more efficient than a small district system could possibly be?

Communications bearing on the subject of school organization have been received by the commission from almost all the state superintendents of the country and from other school officials well qualified to express an opinion. Some of these communications express views favorable to the county system. Only one of them contains anything favorable to the district as the unit of organization. That one is from the assistant superintendent of Washington, who says that since Washington "is a young state, and from the nature of the topography of the country it has been settled in spots," the district system is there practically a necessity. He says, however, that he "can readily see that the township system might have much merit in a thickly populated state like Illinois." The following are extracts from some of the letters received, and are quoted here to enforce still more strongly the fact that the township system is not a dream but a practicable system of school organization and administration which has been tested by long experience and demonstrated to the satisfaction of school men generally that it is superior in every way to the district system.

OPINIONS OF EXPERTS IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.

E. T. Fairchild, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Kansas.—"The township as the unit of school organization is the most efficient and economical plan for the administration of school affairs. Kansas has thirteen thousand public school teachers and an army of twenty-eight thousand officers to direct and manage these teachers—an anomalous condition, and one that means a great waste of energy and a decided lack of unification and co-ordination in educational matters. A large unit means a more economical and business like administration. It is the small district and the varying conception of school work that are responsible for most of the weakness of our system. The district plan is apparently the last remnant of the old time conception of the widest distribution of business and is at war with every modern thought of classification and organization."

J. H. Ackerman, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Oregon.—"In my opinion, and I find it to be the opinion of the leading educators of this State the small unit, such as we have in the district unit, is not producing the results that could be obtained by means of a larger unit. Personally I am strongly in favor of the county unit. My next choice would be the township unit. I am firmly of the opinion that with a township or county unit the net results of our educational effort would be increased fifty per cent. It is not what we put into a system, but what comes out of it, that should count, and hence, as I have before indicated, the greatest question before the American people is that of a changed unit of administration. We are using a method that is more than one hundred years old, without any change, and for that reason the country schools have not kept pace with the city schools. The city schools have forged ahead because they have used a larger unit for educational purposes."

W. L. Stockwell, Superintendent of Public Instruction, North Dakota.—"I am most emphatically in favor of the township system. It makes for efficiency in education which assists materially in consolidation. It brings upon the district school board men of better qualifications; it makes a more satisfactory school, and in this State materially reduces the cost of school management. I think the objection that it would mean increased taxation is not sound unless indirectly better schools mean increased taxation. We have 45 counties in our State, 40 of which have the township system and five of which have the district system, and I am sure that it would be greatly to the advantage of those five counties, educationally, if they could make the change."

H. A. Ustrud, Superintendent of Public Instruction, South Dakota.—"In this State we have both the township organization and the single district organization. The township organization lends aid to centralization of schools and there is a likelihood of having better school officers in the township system than in the single district system. Local disturbances in the district seem to be more satisfactorily handled by a township school board who are unlikely to be parties to other factional affairs so frequent in the single school district."

C. G. Schultz, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Minnesota.—"I am very certain your educational commission has acted wisely and in the interest of efficient and progressive school administration, in recommending a change from the district to the township unit of organization. One of the things which most hampers the rural schools in Minnesota is the small school district."

R. B. Cousins, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Texas.—"The change proposed from your district system to the township system is unquestionably a step in the direction of the permanent improvement of the organization of your schools. Any territorial unit that is smaller than the township is in almost every instance too weak to provide adequate school facilities for the children. Larger units are, as a rule, stronger units, because of the increased amount of taxable property upon which they rest and the greater degree of intelligence possible in the management of the schools."

Nathan C. Schaeffer, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Pennsylvania.—"Pennsylvania has always had the township system of managing schools. From the start the schools have been in charge of six directors. In our opinion this results in economy. My notion is that a county system is more economical even than a township system. The superintendent of one county claims that if he could locate the school houses, he could accommodate all the children as well as they are now accommodated and save the salaries of fifty teachers."

C. J. Baxter, Superintendent of Public Instruction, New Jersey.—"We find that the township system works admirably in New Jersey. It has clearly demonstrated the wisdom of those who were its advocates and has prepared the way for other reforms. We have been enabled to greatly strengthen our schools in the matter of supervision by the appointment of township supervising principals, and to make a much closer approach to providing 'equality of opportunity' for the children of the state."

Mason S. Stone, Superintendent of Education, Vermont.—"By an Act passed at the biennial session of the General Assembly of Vermont in 1892, the educational system of the State was changed from the district system to the town system. Prior to that Act, the towns in their annual town meetings, voted on the adoption of the town system. Each year about eighty per cent of the voters had voted against it and at the time the law was made compulsory by statutory enactment there were only twelve towns in the State which had voluntarily adopted the town system. At the biennial term of 1894, an attempt was made in the General Assembly, to revert to the district system, but the bill failed of passage. Since then no attempt has been made to readopt the previous system, and, for the past ten years I have known of no attempt to return to the previous condition of administration. The principle involved is that education is a common good; there-

fore equal advantages should be furnished all, and the expense of maintenance should also be equal. As a result of the town system, there is much better administration of schools, better teachers are employed, and better results are obtained."

George H. Martin, Secretary of State Board of Education, Massachusetts.—"This State began agitation of the abolition of the district system in 1826 and continued it until the system was finally abolished, root and branch, in 1882. No question has arisen since in regard to the wisdom of the movement nor is it ever likely to arise. The township is in the judgment of the people of this State, the only system under which public schools of a satisfactory character can be maintained."

M. Bates Stephens, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Maryland.—"We Marylanders think it (the district system) prevents the essential features of uniformity and hinders proper supervision. As it seems to me your people will make a mistake should the township system be disregarded."

M. P. Shawkey, Superintendent Public Instruction, West Virginia.—"This State has had a 'township' system of administration of schools for many years. It has proved so satisfactory that there is little disposition to change it. Of recent years there has been some agitation on the proposition to adopt a county limit for taxation so that the poorer and more sparsely populated communities might have an equal length of term with the richer communities."

Payson Smith, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Maine.—"The district school system was abolished in this State only after prolonged agitation and discussion. At the time of the abolition of the district system there was strong opposition to the measure. This opposition continued for a number of years to disturb the schools. However, it is now the very general verdict of our people and the nearly unanimous opinion of our educators that the step was one of the most important that has been taken in the direction of progress. Under our former district system the average citizen had little interest in the schools of his town except in the one located in his own district. This interest in the local school unfortunately often took the form of interference in the details of school management, even to the extent of interference with the rights and privileges of the teacher. Under that system also the distribution of school funds was most unfair and there could be nothing resembling equality of opportunity so long as it prevailed. Of course, it would be too much to say that the difficulties I have mentioned disappeared entirely with the abolition of the districts, but I believe I speak conservatively when I say that at the present time a much better educational policy prevails throughout the State as a result of the township system. I may add that recently there has been a growing tendency to enlarge the school unit in the direction of making it that of the State rather than the township. I do not believe that in itself the township system is more expensive than the district system. Indeed, it is my opinion that there is greater waste under the latter. It may be true, however, that the disposition to consider the school problems of a town as a whole tends to enlarge the sense of responsibility on the part of the town towards education and thus ultimately to increase school expenditures. I regret that I can give you no exact figures on this point. Of course, our school expenditures have been increasing each year, but there is no reason to believe that they would not have increased had the district system continued in force. I feel very sure that any proposal to return to the district system in this State would be met with very general and emphatic opposition."

Walter E. Ranger, Commissioner of Public Schools, Rhode Island.—"To one like myself who has experienced the change from district to town system of schools in two New England States, the district system seems archaic and absolutely inadequate to meet the requirements of the times for public schooling, in distinction from private education. The district system is only one step from home or private schooling. You can educate efficiently all the children of a town only by having uniformly good schools throughout the town. Under the district system I never knew a town of good schools anywhere, or a town maintaining a reasonable equality of school advantages among different districts."

A town system promises the following advantages: 1. More efficient administration with comparatively less effort and cost. 2. Greater publicity and greater effort to remedy evils. 3. All the people assuming responsibility for school education of all pupils in town. 4. The machinery of a town system is better adapted for improvement. It means progress. 5. Better equality of taxation among citizens of towns. 6. Greater equality of educational opportunity among the public's children. 7. The administration of schools is by towns as units just as that of roads, bridges and other interests. 8. School officers are more susceptible to public opinion at large. 9. Calls for stronger class of men to manage schools. 10. Promotes unity of town in all efforts for better things."

Further citations of the expressed convictions of the leading school officers of the country would perhaps be superfluous. Why this practically unanimous opinion among them that the township system of school organization is superior to the district system? Is it because they are unfriendly to the district school and wish to weaken or destroy the work of "the little red school house?" It is absurd to suppose that this is the case. Is it because they are not acquainted with the conditions and needs of the rural schools and do not take these into consideration in arriving at an opinion with respect to school organization? Such a supposition is a reflection on both their public spirit and their intelligence, and, in the case of elected officers at least, it is a reflection upon the intelligence of the people themselves who have elevated these men to the highest offices connected with the administration of their school systems. All such suppositions and reflections must be dismissed as unworthy of consideration in a serious discussion. Does not candor compel the admission that the conviction on the part of these men of the superiority of the township system over the district system is due to the fact that they are profoundly interested in the promotion of the educational interests of their respective states, that they have observed and studied the operation of both systems, and have consequently learned by study and by actual experience that the district system is unsuited to modern conditions and that it stands in the way of educational progress? These school officers are men who on account of their interest in educational questions, and especially on account of their relation to the public school system of their states, are accustomed to consider methods of school organization and administration with reference to their general and permanent effects, which is the manner in which such methods should always be considered. Now, whose opinions are most likely to be worthy of acceptance, those of men who are required by their duties to be familiar with the educational conditions and needs of the State, and who are compelled by their position to take the broader view of educational questions, or those of men whose vocational interests and whose relation to the school system naturally tend to limit their educational horizon to the boundaries of the school district in which they reside? It is certainly no reflection upon the intelligence of men who have not had occasion to think much about educational systems to refuse to allow their opinion on the best method of organizing the schools for administrative purposes to have a predominating influence in determining the question. It is rather an indication of superior intelligence to trust

matters requiring expert knowledge to experts, and the reliance of a democratic state upon experts responsible to the people is absolutely essential to the successful administration of its affairs.

Lest it be said that the opinions heretofore quoted are largely speculative, and that if the township system were adopted in Illinois the result would be unfavorable to the schools, it may be well to introduce further testimony in regard to the results in those states which have adopted the township system. Massachusetts discarded the district system completely in 1882. "During the years of its duration," says the Hon. J. W. Dickinson, formerly secretary of the Massachusetts board of education, "experience had proven the system to be productive of much evil and but little good. Under its influence many of the school houses of the town were poor, the schools taught in them were small, and, of necessity, were short and were provided with poor teachers. The most intelligent friends of the public schools had struggled to free their communities from a system which they felt was opposed alike to harmony and progress." To propose a return to the district system in Massachusetts would today awaken about as much interest as a proposal to return to stage coaches and canal boats as means of travel. New Hampshire adopted the town system in 1885. The then state superintendent of New Hampshire in speaking of the defects of the district system said, "It will readily be seen that it defeats measurably the very end for which public schools are established, as it fails to diffuse, with an equable hand, that intelligence which is essential to the safety and highest prosperity of the republic. It gives to the minority of children in villages and cities extraordinary opportunities, and very ordinary ones to the majority scattered over the country towns. It gives to the children of non-taxpaying foreigners, concentrated in large places, privileges that it withholds from the children of taxpaying natives in the rural districts. It gives to the child of the man who pays a heavy tax in a small district less schooling than to the child of the man who only pays a poll tax in a large one." The same year in which New Hampshire entered upon the town system it was adopted in Maine. Three years afterward Hon. N. A. Luce, who had been state superintendent at the time of the adoption of the new system, declared that "the advantages claimed for the towns over the district system are not theoretical. They are the result of experience. True, the number of schools will be reduced, and they should be. But such a reduction will work no deprivation of right or privilege at all comparable with that wrought by the district system. Nor will such reduction be arbitrary and ill-advised for it is an incidental, not a direct consequence of the change of the system." Vermont adopted the town system in 1892. An ex-state superintendent of Vermont declared that "the district system has become burdensomely complex, and its parts have grown incongruous with one another, an evident sign of decrepitude. The town system is vigorous and simple and has shown satisfactory results in all classes of towns, proving sufficiently its adaptation to the entire state." Another ex-state superintendent of Vermont says, "the experience of another two years in the common schools of the state has still more fully convinced many of the utter

inefficiency of our plan of district management. It is very worthy of note that most of the teachers, and nearly all others who have been practically connected with the schools, favor the change of the district for the town management." The opinion of the present superintendent of that state has already been quoted. In his report of 1894, from which some of the expressions previously quoted have been drawn, he enumerates among the advantages of the larger unit, better teachers, better school houses, better supplies, and better management, and offers various proofs to show that these have been the results of the town system.

The history of education in many of the states now under the district system shows that school men generally have been conscious of its disadvantages and have favored the township plan. Illinois furnishes a good example. In that state every superintendent from the beginning has favored township organization.

The first Superintendent of Public Instruction in Illinois was the Honorable Ninian W. Edwards, who was appointed in 1854. In his first report he proposed "to entrust the entire jurisdiction of the system to a township board of education. Under the present system," said he, "the number of directors and trustees in each township is so great as effectually to defeat the objects, and to prevent anything like an effective supervision, without which no schools can prosper. By committing the entire jurisdiction to one board, not only will there be secured a general and effective supervision, but what is scarcely less important, a laudable emulation will be encouraged among the schools, while uniformity in the mode of instruction, discipline and police will gradually obtain over the entire State."* Again he said, "I would urge the adoption of what is called the township system, which provides for the election of one board of education, to consist of trustees selected as nearly as possible from the various parts of each township, who shall have the control of all the schools in the township."†

The following are extracts from the reports of subsequent superintendents:

Hon. William H. Powell.—"No state has ever succeeded in perfecting a free school system with such a mongrel plan as the one under which we are now working in this State. The defects of the present law are *radical* defects, and wholly incapable of being effectually remedied by any alterations or amendments. The only adequate remedy is to repeal the law, and enact an entirely new one, based upon a similar organization. * * * * * Until such a system is adopted, the highest success, in the opinion of the undersigned, need not be looked for." [Public School Report, 1857-8, page 13.]

Hon. Newton Bateman.—"With my whole heart I believe that the highest success cannot be attained with our present local organization, and that the true remedy is the township system. It was recommended by our first state superintendent and has been indorsed by all his successors; I have cited in its favor the earnest approval of some of the ablest and best men of other states; it is sanctioned by every state superintendent from whom I have heard on the subject; it has been in operation in several states for many

*Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1855, pp. 11-12.

†Quoted in Public School Report, 1865-66, p. 93.

years, and not one of them could be induced to return to the other plan; the tendency of legislation is all in that direction in states where the system has not yet been established; it has been vindicated by experience, vindicated by results, vindicated by its simplicity and self-evident adaptation to the wants of the people and to the necessities of the case; the preponderance of argument, of experience, of testimony, of economy, and of common sense is arrayed on its side. I believe it is destined to become, territorily, the ultimate Americal system of school organization; and to the end that it may speedily be inaugurated and established in Illinois, I earnestly invoke the coöperation of the friends of common schools, and the favorable regard of the General Assembly. [Public School Report, 1865-66, page 113.]

Hon. S. M. Etter.—"The township plan would not only equalize the school expenses, but it would be the means of securing better teachers and better school advantages at a much less expense than can be secured by the system of dividing the territory into small, insignificant parts. * * * * * I firmly believe that the adoption of the township system will give a new impetus and life to our public school work in every county in the State, and when once understood, if adopted, that the people will be satisfied with it." [Public School Report, 1875-6, pages 432-3.]

Hon. James P. Slade.—"It is unfortunate, I think, that our school system makes the district, instead of the township, the unit; for the schools would be more intelligently managed if under the control of a board selected from a whole township." [Public School Report, 1879-80, page 44.]

Hon. Henry Raab.—"Should a bill for an Act be introduced in the next General Assembly for a change from the district system to the township system, it is confidently hoped that our legislators will feel the necessity of taking this reformatory step at this time. The advantages are so many under the new plan that those who bring about the change will deserve the thanks of the people." [Public School Report, 1885-6, page CCXXIV.]

Richard Edwards.—"Many earnest educators would be glad to see a change by which the present school district should be abolished and every township should constitute a district by itself. For this, many sound and convincing reasons are urged. The principal opposition to it arises from the dread of a centralization of power. It is also suggested that the present system which employs 43,000 school officers without compensation is a powerful educator to this vast multitude; that the directors in some rural districts, although ill-qualified to determine the grave questions that concern schools are yet improved by their experience as directors. These arguments undoubtedly have some value. But for the sake of educating these men we can scarcely afford to degrade the quality of the education furnished to our 1,118,472 children of school age." [Public School Report, 1887-8, page CLXXXVI.]

Hon. Alfred Bayliss.—"There is one other [handicap] less obvious than these, but which is the cause of all of them. I refer to the small district system. Years ago Horace Mann declared that the practice of dividing towns into school districts was the most unfortunate law on the subject of schools ever enacted in Massachusetts. There is no doubt that the same thing may be said, without reservation, of the Illinois school law. The division of responsibility has been carried one step too far. If the congressional township could remain as now the unit of our system, but not subject to division, there is no reason why the country schools should not be as generally efficient as the city schools, and not infrequently more so. Horace Mann's opinion is the opinion of students of school organization, almost without exception." [Public School Report, 1904-6, page 25.]

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TOWNSHIP ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOLS IN ILLINOIS.

The public schools of Illinois are organized and administered in accordance with the following general plan: The public schools of the entire State are under the general supervision of the superintendent of public instruction, which is the legal title of the officer usually called State Superintendent of Schools. The State is divided into 102 counties and schools of each county are under the direct supervision of a county superintendent of schools. Each county contains on the average about eighteen and one-half congressional townships, making the total number of such townships in the State 1,882. Each congressional township is established by law as a township for school purposes. In each congressional township three trustees of schools are elected. These trustees exercise over the school affairs of the township an authority chiefly but not exclusively financial. Each township in the State is divided into districts, thirty-five of which exist by virtue of special legislative action. The schools of a district are managed by boards of three directors in districts having a population of one thousand or fewer, and by boards of education in districts containing more than one thousand inhabitants.

From this brief description it will be seen that the school system of Illinois is in a high degree complex. There is a state system, but nothing comparable to the highly organized system of some of the other states, as, for instance, New York. There is a county system, but the county is not the real unit of school organization as in Louisiana. There is the form of the township system in as much as each congressional township is a school township in which school business is transacted by a corporation known as the trustees of schools. Finally there is the district system. "Ours," said Newton Bateman, "is, strictly speaking, neither the town system, nor the local sub-district system, but an awkward and perplexing combination of both; possessing the appropriate excellences of neither, with the disadvantages of each."*

Still, if one were asked to characterize the school system of Illinois with respect to its unit of school organization it would have to be said that the schools of the State are operated under the district system, for the district is the chief factor in school administration. The trustees of each township are vested with the general power and authority "to lay off the township into one or more school districts." District boundaries may be changed and districts may be divided and sub-

*Sixth Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, p. 65.

divided or consolidated by the township trustees of schools on petition of a majority of the voters of the districts affected by the proposed change. Each district has its own board of directors, or board of education as the case may be, which controls and manages the school or schools within its borders. This principle of subdivision of townships into districts and the local management of schools is what really constitutes the district system.

Now the district system, as has been suggested, is a very simple one when considered from the view point of a single district, but it is a very complex and awkward system when considered from the viewpoint of the county or the State. There are, for instance, in Illinois in round numbers twelve thousand school districts. Each district is more or less independent of all other districts. It plans and builds its own school house, selects its own teacher, determines what wages shall be paid, directs what branches of study shall be taught, and what text books and apparatus shall be used. Obviously there will be under any system of this kind many grades of educational effort and many standards of excellence in the development of schools. No general plan of improvement is possible. Without some sort of agency to unify, harmonize and direct the educational work of the various districts there could hardly be anything like system in the school work of the county or the State.

To provide such an agency Illinois, as well as every other state in the union, has developed some method of town, county or large district and State supervision of schools. In Illinois, as was said before, we have county supervision and State supervision. Neither the one nor the other would be possible, however, had not the districts made some concession with respect to the local control of schools and neither can be brought to the highest state of efficiency until the district system is discarded. The moment county or State supervision is undertaken the district system appears in a new light. It is then seen to stand in the way of effective supervision, to be cumbersome, uneconomical and inefficient. Hence, the supervisor of schools will, as a rule, be found opposed to that system. Horace Mann, for instance, after some experience with it in Massachusetts, declared that the law of that state passed in 1789 and authorizing the towns of that Commonwealth to divide themselves into districts was "the most unfortunate law, on the subject of common schools, ever enacted in the State."* A study of the educational history of Illinois will show that the educational leaders of the State have almost invariably been opposed to the district system.

Fifty-two years ago, for instance, a committee of the Illinois State Teachers' Association reported in favor of a change from the district system to the township system. Every superintendent of public instruction in Illinois has favored township organization, and at least eight of them have advocated it in their reports. Extracts from some of these reports containing the opinions of these men on this subject have already been quoted. The opinions they have expressed are the opinions of the commission, and it would not be faithful to its duty if it did not proclaim

*Horace Mann's School Reports, Vol. 2, Tenth Annual Report, p. 37.

that in its judgment the educational interests of the State demand that change in our system of school organization which has been so strongly urged by those who have had the best opportunity to observe the evils incident to the present system.

The commission does not forget, of course, that the educational interests of Illinois have made great progress under the district system of organization. Excellent schools have been established. An intelligent people has been produced. In any consideration of our educational system it should be remembered that whatever defects there may be the excellences vastly outweigh them. But no defect should be tolerated merely because it is not fatal. Progress has been made in our schools, in recent years at least, in spite of the district system, not because of it. Useful citizens and great men will appear under any educational system, or without any educational system at all. The district system, so far as it prevents the most rapid development of school facilities and opportunities is to that extent an obstacle in the way of the development of the people. There are few who have given careful consideration to the subject of school organization who will deny that the district system does stand in the way of better things in education. In the earlier days when the country was thinly settled it served a valuable purpose. The viewpoint was then naturally if not necessarily that of the district. But Illinois has developed; it has become thickly settled; it has become in every sense a State. Hence, the earlier system of school organization is no longer adapted to its needs. It has become antiquated. It has outlived its former usefulness and has become one of the chief obstacles to educational advancement.

By the district system must be understood, of course, the division of a township into districts and the control of the schools of each district by a board of directors. When we speak of supplanting this system by a better system our remarks should not be understood as applying in any sense to the district school. The district school will continue to exist no matter what system is adopted. The township system does not necessarily involve any centralizing of the schools. It does not of itself even change the location of a single school house or of a single school. It simply centralizes the management of the schools. The chief object in suggesting a change in our form of school organization is to preserve and improve the district school. It is chiefly because of the fact that under the district system the district school itself can not attain the highest state of development that the commission feels warranted in recommending that the district system be supplanted by the township system.

The recommendation of a better system of public education is what the commission understands its function to be. The existence of the commission is no evidence of the failure of our present educational system, but it does indicate that defects have been observed and that improvements are possible. The educational commission of Pennsylvania expressed, through its chairman, the desire "to make the school system of Pennsylvania the best in the country." This is perhaps the ambition of all state educational commissions with respect to their own

state. But in the judgment of the Illinois Commission the school system in Illinois can not be made the best in the country with its present system of school organization. Again, according to a resolution adopted by the State Teachers' Association, December 28, 1906, the purpose of the commission is to gather "all the data necessary for an intelligent reorganization of the entire public school system, which shall result in placing it on the plane of the best in the world, for simplicity, adaptation and efficiency." The commission earnestly desires to realize this purpose. It has been inspired by the hope of being able to present for the consideration of the people of the State and for favorable action by the General Assembly such improvements of our system of education as will not merely place it on the plane of the best in the world, but actually make it the best. This hope is shared, no doubt, by all who are interested in its work. But it may as well be admitted that such an ambition or hope can not possibly be realized if the district system of school organization is preserved. In the language of a former superintendent of public instruction, "no state has ever succeeded in perfecting a free school system with such a mongrel plan as the one under which we are now working in this State."

If this is true, and it is almost obviously so, there ought to be no objection to, but on the contrary the heartiest sympathy with, a proposal to introduce into the educational system of the State the few changes necessary to reduce its complexity to the simplicity and order that would attend the establishment of the township as the real unit of school organization. There are several methods by which this end may be accomplished.

In the first place the school law of the State might be so amended as to enable any township by a majority vote of its people to abolish its district boards of directors and place all of its schools under the control and management of the township trustees of schools. The trustees have the power under the present law, when petitioned by a majority of the legal voters of each district affected by the change, to consolidate districts. But in all probability the transfer from one system to the other would never be made by the separate initiative of the different districts of the State. Even if a specific act enabling townships to introduce the township system were passed, it would be necessary to offer some special inducement to overcome the inertia of a township and secure independent action.

This method of passing from the district system to the township system by the separate action of different townships is perhaps the least promising. It would result at best only in giving to the State, for a long time at least, a double system of school organization. Connecticut tried this method. In 1841 a law was passed allowing two or more adjoining school districts to unite and form a union district. In 1860 another step was taken by giving to each town the power to form, alter and dissolve school districts within its limits. Finally in 1866 towns were authorized on a majority vote of their people to abolish all school districts and parts of districts within their limits and to assume and maintain the control of their public schools. In Connecticut, therefore, for almost fifty years the town system has been permissive.

Nevertheless, seventy-eight of the one hundred and sixty-eight towns of that state are still under the district system. There is consequently great impatience among the school men of Connecticut on account of the slowness with which the township method operates. The more backward the district the less likely it is to proceed to organize its schools under town authority. We find, for instance, a member of the town school committee of New Milford, Conn., in a recent address before the Connecticut State Teachers' Association declaring that "the parent of all evils in the schools of the small towns is the district system. A system long outgrown, a breeder of discord, promoter of financial stinginess, the essence of misrule. . . . a blot upon the educational system of our state." He recommends an act compelling the adoption of town management of schools in all towns not later than July, 1910. "Such legislation," he says, "would remove a great disgrace from our State, be no undue burden of expense on anyone and mark a long step forward in school management." Iowa is another state whose educational history is instructive on this point. For many years that state has had legislation permitting township organization, but the district system still exists in about one-third of the state. It is easy to understand, then, why the township method of adopting township organization is highly unsatisfactory to the friends of the township system. It is too slow and it burdens the state with the inconveniences and evils of a double system.

Another method of supplanting the district system by the township system is that of allowing counties at their own option to pass from one system to the other. The school law might be so amended, for instance, as to enable county commissioners or boards of supervisors on petition of a certain percentage of the voters of a county to hold an election in which the question of township school organization would be submitted to the people. This is the method provided in the present law of the State for adopting township organization politically. On petition of fifty or more legal voters of a county the county board is required to submit to the voters of the county the question of township organization. If the question is carried commissioners are appointed to divide the county into townships. There may seem to be some inconsistency in providing for a county vote upon what may seem to be almost wholly a township proposition. But it should not be forgotten that our system of county school supervision and the interrelations of our people make any change in the organization of the schools of a township a question of importance to the whole county. North Dakota provides in its school law that the county commissioners together with the county superintendent of schools "shall make such changes generally in the boundary lines of the school districts of the county, not in their judgment detrimental to the interests of the schools of the county, as will reduce the number of school districts in the county, and form school districts not extended beyond the boundaries of the civil townships." Under the operation of this law, and of other enactments preventing the introduction of the district system in counties newly organized, all of the counties of North Dakota but five are now under township organization.

There appears to be no legal obstacle in the way of this method of adopting the township system. It is plainly superior to the method previously described for it promises a more rapid spread of the township system of organization over the State. The separate action of one hundred and two counties would probably not require so much time as the separate action of one thousand eight hundred and eighty-two townships. If township organization were in the experimental stage, if there were uncertainty in regard to its adaptation to the educational needs of the State, this method of adopting it would perhaps be advisable. But the township system is not in an experimental stage. It has long since demonstrated its superiority over the district system in all the states that have given it a trial. Why then resort to any method that would delay the benefits of a simpler organization? Why not accept a demonstrated conclusion? Progress is more rapidly made by accepting the results of the experience of other than by experimenting ourselves to ascertain these results.

A third method of making the desired change and, in the opinion of the commission the best method, is to enact an amendment to the law of the State providing that the control and management of all schools in districts not governed by boards of education, and the control and management of township high schools, shall be placed at once in the hands of the township boards of trustees. All that is necessary is to discontinue boards of directors and townships boards of education in control of high schools and vest all the power of these boards in the trustees of schools. This is an easy method, a simple method, and it would obviously be the most effective. Whatever benefits are to be derived from the township system of organization would be obtained at once. The State would pass immediately from the district system to the township system. The simplicity of this method as applied to Illinois and the ease by which the State could pass from one system to the other if this method were adopted are obvious. If it is asked what would be the practical effects of a law putting this method into operation, let Newton Bateman, one of the best superintendents of public instruction that Illinois has had, make answer. "Not a right, power, or duty of the State Superintendent, or any county superintendent, would be added, subtracted, changed or modified in any manner whatever, the office of township treasurer would be just as necessary as before, and his powers and duties remain substantially as now, though much simplified by the abolition of the districts; the boards of trustees and directors would continue in the discharge of their respective duties until the day fixed by law for the election of the new township school boards. Upon the election and qualification of these boards, all district boards of directors throughout the State would cease to exist: all existing district lines and boundaries (except when co-incident with township lines) would disappear and be no more; all school houses, lands and other district school property, would revert and come into the control of the township board of education, who would thereupon assume and exercise the rights, powers and duties, all and singular, which now devolve upon boards of trustees and directors respectively; and Illinois would forthwith be under

the township system of school organization. Not a common school in the State would be closed or interfered with, not a teacher discharged, not an existing contract annulled. The great educational work of the State would move right on as if nothing had happened; no visible sign would appear to show that an immense administrative reform had taken place, and a new and glorious era dawned upon our system of public instruction. The vast accumulations of school property would be preserved intact; but few school houses would have to be moved, and none at all immediately, for, as a general rule, school sites and buildings that are in the right place now, would be equally so then. Thus, quietly, without shock or confusion, almost without public knowledge or notice, the system would lay down the heavy, galling harness of her ten-thousand-headed policy, and assume the light elastic armor of a fresh, compact and simple, but far more expansive and powerful organization. As in the case of our matchless civil government, the people would be reminded of its existence chiefly by the richness of the blessings which it would dispense."

This is the conclusion of Newton Bateman after the most careful consideration of the effect of entrance upon township organization. It is practically the conclusion at which anyone will arrive who will give the subject the thorough and candid consideration which its importance deserves. We can be sure, then, of the adoption of the township system in Illinois if the relative merits of the district system and the township system are generally studied and compared. The commission urges this study and comparison. To be of the most immediate and permanent value the change suggested by the commission should be of the people and by the people as it would most certainly be for the people.

We may conclude, then, with the utmost confidence that if in the educational system of the State the township were established as the unit of school organization, we should have opened the way to increased economy and efficiency in the educational work of the State. We should have substituted unity, harmony, coördination, organization, economy, and efficiency for separation, disunity, confusion, inefficiency, and waste. Contrary to the rule by which advantages are usually secured this great improvement would be obtained without any serious inconvenience. The few legal changes suggested would enable the State to glide smoothly into the new system without shock or jar. To repeat once more the language of Newton Bateman, "the great educational work of the State would move right on as if nothing had happened, no visible sign would appear to show that an immense administrative reform had taken place, and a new and glorious era dawned upon our system of public instruction."

Notwithstanding the fact that the commission is unanimously of the opinion that the township system is superior to the district system, and while it recommends the former unhesitatingly and unqualifiedly, it has been compelled by the criticism evoked by its tentative recommendation in regard to township organization to recognize the futility of an attempt to pass at one step from the one system to the other. It does not think it would be wise to attempt to force the better system of

school organization upon the people of any township prior to the time when a majority of the people of that township is persuaded that the schools would be improved by adopting the new form of organization. It does believe, however, that when a majority of the people are so persuaded they should have the right to change from the old system to the new. This is democratic, and it is necessary to give expansiveness to the public school system of the State. Accordingly, as a preliminary step to complete township organization, the commission recommends the enactment of the following bill which provides for the vesting under a single board of directors the control and management of the schools in the districts of a township, no one of which districts contains an incorporated village or city:

Section 1. *Be it enacted by the People of the State of Illinois, represented in the General Assembly*—That upon petition of fifty voters resident within the districts of a township no one of which districts shall contain an incorporated village or city, presented to the trustees of such township on or before the first day of March in any year, it shall be the duty of such trustees to cause to be submitted to the voters of such districts at a special election called for that purpose under the provisions of section 38 of "An Act to establish and maintain a system of free schools," approved and in force May 21, 1889, and at least fifteen days prior to the regular meeting of trustees of schools in April, the question of voting for or against uniting the control and management of the schools of such districts under a single board of school directors.

Sec. 2. If it shall appear upon a canvass of the returns of such election that a majority of the votes cast are in favor of such union, the trustees shall give notice that on the third Saturday in April next an election will be held in some convenient place or places for the purpose of electing three school directors, no two of whom shall be chosen from the same sub-district. At such election one of the members shall be elected for the term of one year, one for the term of two years and one for the term of three years, and annually thereafter a successor to the member of such board whose term of office shall then expire shall be elected to serve for a term of three years.

Sec. 3. Such board of directors shall be vested with all the powers and duties now or hereafter to be conferred upon or required of boards of education in cities having a population not exceeding 100,000 inhabitants and shall be the successor to the various boards of directors of the districts uniting the control and management of their schools, and all rights of property and rights and causes of action existing or vested in the district boards of directors for the use of the inhabitants of the respective districts, or any part of them, shall vest in it in as complete a manner as they were vested in the directors aforesaid.

Sec. 4. For the purposes of this Act a district composed of parts of two or more townships shall be considered to be a part of a township in which the school house of such district is situated: *Provided, however*, that any part of such district may be restored to the township of which it is geographically a part whenever a majority of the inhabitants of that part of such district so petition the trustees of schools in said township. Such readjustment of territory shall not require any payment of money or division of property on account thereof.

Sec. 5. Districts which have united the control and management of their schools under the provisions of this Act may dissolve such union in the same manner as is provided for its adoption, but the question of dissolving the union shall not be submitted within the period of three years after its adoption.

Sec. 6. This Act shall take effect and be in force from and after July 1, 1910.

DISCONTINUANCE AND ABANDONMENT OF SMALL SCHOOLS.

Under township organization there should be vested in the township trustees of schools the power to close schools with an enrollment of fewer than fifteen pupils and they should be required to close all schools having an enrollment of fewer than ten pupils.

There would be nothing new in a provision of this kind. The school law of Connecticut in 1856 contained the following provision: "When any school district shall be reduced in population so as to contain less than twelve pupils between the ages of four and sixteen years it shall be the duty of the town or township within which such district is situated to dissolve the same and annex the territory thereof to the adjoining district or districts." The present law of that state provides that "no school need be maintained in any district in which the average attendance at the school in said district during the preceding year, ending the fourteenth day of July, was less than eight. Rhode Island authorizes the school committee of any town, with the approval of the commissioner of public schools, to consolidate any schools the average number belonging to each of which is less than twelve, or to unite such school or schools with some other school in order to establish a graded school or to secure greater efficiency of the schools. The school law of Maine contains the general provision that in case any school shall have too few pupils for its profitable maintenance the superintending school committee may suspend the operation of such school for not more than one year. The law of that state prevents the continuance of any public school which fails to maintain an average attendance for any school year of at least eight pupils unless the town in which the school is located shall by vote, at the annual meeting, if the committee shall have made a written recommendation to that effect, instruct the superintending school committee to maintain the school. The law of North Dakota also provides that "any school may be discontinued when the average attendance of pupils therein for ten consecutive days shall be less than four." Reference has already been made to the law of Indiana in regard to the discontinuance and abandonment of small schools. That law reads as follows: "The township trustees shall discontinue and abandon all schools under their charge at which the average daily attendance during the last preceding school year has been twelve pupils or fewer; and said trustees may discontinue and abandon all schools at which the average daily attendance during the last preceding school year has been fifteen pupils or fewer: *Provided*, the condition as to roads, streams and bridges permit of such discontinuance." These states are not the only ones which permit the closing of small schools. This recommendation of the commission is therefore in harmony with the educational policy of the states most advanced in education.

The number of schools in Illinois with an enrollment below the minima suggested is 1,450. There are 589 schools with an enrollment of less than ten. These schools would be closed at once. Eight hundred

and seventy-one schools have an enrollment of more than ten and less than fifteen. The closing of these schools would be left to the judgment of the trustees of the township. Now, if we estimate the annual cost of one of these schools at \$250.00, and that is a low estimate, the saving to the State derived from closing the schools with fewer than ten pupils would be \$26,500.00, and the possible saving from closing all of the schools with fewer than fifteen pupils would be \$365,000.00. This amount would be saved outright or be used to better advantage. The children attending these small and inefficient schools, for small schools are usually inefficient, would find in the larger schools better social and educational opportunities than they now enjoy. Thus the closing of these schools would be an advantage to the children, to the taxpayers, and to society at large.

THE CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS.

Every state and territory in the Union requires teachers in the public schools to hold a certificate granted by a specified authority and declaring the holder to be of good character and to possess the scholastic qualifications regarded as necessary to the work of teaching. In more than half of the states, teachers are required to be of a certain age specified in the law. This age is, as a rule, eighteen years. In Maryland, however, no man can teach who is under the age of nineteen. The minimum age limit is highest in the District of Columbia in which no one can teach who has not attained the age of twenty years.

Table Showing the Minimum Age Limit of Teachers in the Various States.

State.	Age.	State.	Age.	State.	Age.	State.	Age.
Alabama	None.	Iowa	None.	Nevada	16	South Dakota.	18
Arizona	18	Kansas	18	N. Hampshire..	18	Tennessee....	None.
Arkansas.....	None.	Kentucky	18	New Jersey	18	Texas	None.
California.....	18	Louisiana.....	None.	New Mexico ...	None.	Utah	18
Colorado.....	18	Maine	None.	New York	18	Vermont.....	17
Connecticut....	None.	Maryland.....	18-19	N. Carolina....	18	Virginia	18
Delaware.....	None.	Massachusetts	None.	North Dakota ..	18	Washington ..	18
Dist. Columbia	20	Michigan	18	Ohio	18	W. Virginia ..	17
Florida.....	None.	Minnesota	18	Oklohomia.....	16	Wisconsin....	None.
Georgia.....	None.	Mississippi....	17	Oregon	18	Wyoming	17
Idaho.....	18	Missouri	None.	Pennsylvania...	None.		
Illinois.....	17-18	Montana.....	18	Rhode Island...	None.		
Indiana.....	None.	Nebraska.....	None.	South Carolina.	18		

Certificates of qualifications are granted, as a rule, on some sort of scholastic examination. In several of the states a normal school or university diploma relieves its holder of the necessity of an examination. There are other exceptions to the rule but the main avenue to the profession of teaching runs through the door of an examination.

Accordingly every state and territory has evolved some sort of examination system for the purpose of examining and certifying the large number of public school teachers required in the education of its children. Such system must necessarily be a growth. We may, therefore, expect to find the examination systems of the different states in various stages of development. Examinations are conducted and certificates granted sometimes by one authority and sometimes by another. There are at least nine certifying agencies in the United States. They

are, state boards of education, state superintendents, normal school boards, boards of university regents, county superintendents, county boards, city boards, township supervisors and school district committees. Notwithstanding the apparent diversity in certificating authorities, however, we may roughly classify the systems of examination into the town system, the county system and the state system.*

THE TOWNSHIP SYSTEM.

In the incipient stages of social development the local community provides its own school, employs its own teacher, and determines what qualification shall be required of him. Such was the case in the colonial settlements and such has been the case in some of the western states in the early period of their development. In Illinois, for instance, until 1841, the people of a community who desired to organize a school employed such teacher as they deemed qualified to teach, and after his employment they elected three of their number to superintend the school.

This local or district system of examining teachers has been almost entirely eliminated. The first step in advance is from this primitive method to the town system. In New Hampshire the school board of every district is authorized to hold an examination of candidates for certificates of qualification to teach in the public schools. A district in that state, however, is really the town and hence the district system has become the town system. In Massachusetts the town school committee, before employing a teacher, must require full and satisfactory evidence of his moral character and must ascertain by personal examination his qualifications for teaching and his capacity for government of schools. So also in Connecticut, "school visitors, town school committees, or boards of education, shall, as a board, or by a committee by them appointed, examine all persons desiring to teach in the public schools." This town system existed in Connecticut along with the state system. The same is true of Maine in which the town superintendent of schools examines teachers and grants certificates or endorses certificates issued to teach by normal school principals.

It is obvious that the town system of examining teachers is hardly compatible with a larger unit of school supervision. Accordingly in most of the states it has given way to the county system.

THE COUNTY SYSTEM.

The county system of examining and certifying teachers consists, of course, in the examination of teachers by the county superintendent or a county examining board and the granting of certificates to those who are found qualified to receive them. This system exists in one form or another in about three-fourths of the states. In Vermont it is found along with a form of the town system and the beginnings of a state

*On these three systems see Cubberley, *The Certification of Teachers*, fifth year-book of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education, 1906, pp. 12-24 and 47-51.

system. The best examples, however, are found in California, Delaware, Illinois, Maryland, Oklahoma and Wisconsin. There is no state, however, in which the county system is employed exclusively. Provision is made for some form of state certificate granted by the superintendent of public instruction or a state board of education or a board of examiners. Sometimes the state authority prepares the questions used by the county superintendent in his examinations; sometimes, as in Michigan, the county commissioner may, upon request of any holder of a certificate of a second or third grade certificate, send the papers written by such person, properly certified and under seal, to the county board of school examiners of any other county for their examination; some times, as in Indiana, the candidate may send his examination papers to the state superintendent for his examination and receive, if he is successful, a certificate good throughout the state.

The county system is apparently gradually giving way to the larger and more uniform system demanded by the state supervision of schools.

THE STATE SYSTEM.

The state system in which the certifying authority is lodged wholly in the state superintendent, state board of education or state board of examiners, is best exemplified in Alabama, Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska, New York, Rhode Island, Virginia, Washington and Wyoming. In Alabama the system is almost complete. All examinations are held and all certificates granted by the state board of examiners except in the case of special districts. In the territory of Arizona the state system is used exclusively. It seems probable that the state system will come gradually into more general use.

The history of school legislation in Illinois affecting the certification of teachers illustrates clearly the growth from the local or community system to the State system. Until 1841, as has already been pointed out, the community employed and examined its own teachers. In that year power was conferred upon the town trustees of schools to examine teachers and grant certificates. Later, when it was proposed to take away from these trustees this particular power and vest it in a county school commissioner, there was strong opposition to the movement. A compromise was finally effected and in 1845 an act was passed authorizing county school commissioners to examine and certificate teachers, but the act provided also that "the trustees of schools in their respective townships shall have the same power to examine teachers as is given to the school commissioners." Finally the town plan gave way completely to the county plan. When the State superintendency was created in 1854 the Superintendent of Public Instruction was authorized to examine teachers and grant State certificates. For more than fifty years these two methods have existed side by side. As the educational needs and conditions of the State have become more homogeneous there is a demand for a uniform State system, and the Educational Commission of Illinois has recommended to the General Assembly a uniform plan by

which the scholastic qualifications of candidates are to be determined by a State Board of Education and the power to grant, renew, suspend and revoke certificates is left to the county superintendent and the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

The following tabular statement will show roughly the examining system or combination of systems existing in the various states:

Kansas.....		State Board of Education ...	State Board of Education ...	State Board of Education ...	Diplomas ...	Life ...	* 1 00
	3	County Board of Examiners ...	do	County Board of Examiners ...	State certifi. ...	3 yrs. and life ...	* 1 00
					Professional ...	do	* 1 00
					1st grade ...	do	* 1 00
					2d grade ...	2 years ...	* 1 00
					3d grade ...	1 year ...	* 1 00
Kentucky	2	County Superintendent ...	State Board of Examiners ...	State Board of Examiners ...	Temporary ...	do	* 1 00
	4	State Board of Examiners ...	do	County Board of Examiners ...	Diplomas ...	Life ...	5 00
		do	do	do	State certifi. ...	8 years ...	4 00
		do	do	do	1st grade ...	4 years ...	1 00
		do	do	do	2d grade ...	2 years ...	1 00
		do	do	do	3d grade ...	1 year ...	1 00
Louisiana		Parish Supt. & Pres. Parish School Board	State Dep't of Education ...	Parish Committee of Exmrs. ...	1st grade ...	5 years ...	1 00
					2d grade ...	3 years ...	1 00
					3d grade ...	1 year ...	1 00
					Special ...	do	None
Maine	1	State Superintendent ...	State Superintendent ...	State Superintendent ...	Permanent ...	Life ...	do ..
					Probationary ...	1-3-5 years ...	do ..
Marylan	1	Town Superintendent ...	Town Superintendent ...	Town Superintendent ...	do	1 year ...	do ..
		State Board of Education ...	do	Co. Sup't, Sup't Pub. Ed'n ...	Life ...	5 yrs. with pro- bat. per. 6 mo ...	do ..
		County Superintendent ...	do	do	1st grade ...	1st ...	do ..
		do	do	Baltimore City Sup't ...	2d grade ...	2d ...	do ..
		Baltimore City Sup't ...	do	School Committee ...	Life ...	Intermediate ...	do ..
		School Committee ...	do	State Board of Education ...	do	Life ...	do ..
	2	State Board of Education ...	do	County Board of Examiners ...	1st grade ...	4 years ...	do ..
	2	County Board of Examiners ...	Sup't Public Instruction ...	do	2d grade ...	3 years ...	Men, 1 00 Wom'n 50
Massachusetts					3d grade ...	1 year ...	do ..
Michigan					Professional ...	do	None
	2	State Superintendent ...	State Superintendent ...	State Superintendent ...	1st grade ...	5 years ...	do ..
					2d grade ...	2 years ...	do ..
					3d grade ...	1 year ...	do ..
					3d grade—Lim ...	do	do ..
Minnesota					State ...	1-2-3 years ...	\$ 80
					State Board of Examiners ...	2-3 years ...	50
					County Board of Examiners ...	1 year ...	50
	4	do	do	State Superintendent ...	2d grade, co ...	do	50
		State Superintendent ...	do	do	3d grade, co ...	do	50
		do	do	County Board of Education ...	State ...	Life ...	None
	3	County Board of Education ...	do	do	1st grade, co ...	1-2-5 years ...	do ..
					2d grade, co ...	3 years ...	\$ 00
					3d grade, co ...	2 years ...	3 00
					3d grade, co ...	1 year ...	3 00
Montana		State Board of Education ...	Sup't Public Instruction ...	County Superintendent ...	State diplomas ...	Life 6 years ...	1 50
	4	County Superintendent ...	do	do	Professional ...	4 years ...	1 00
		do	do	do	1st grade ...	3 years ...	1 00
		do	do	do	2d grade ...	2 years ...	2 00
		do	do	do	3d grade ...	1 year ...	1 00
		do	do	do	Temporary ...	do	do ..

* A fee of \$1.00 is charged if papers are sent to Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Examining System—Concluded.

State.	No. of Examinations.	Certificates granted by—	Questions prepared by—	Papers graded by—	Kinds of certificates.	Term of each.	Fees.
Texas.....		University	Faculty	Faculty	Diploma	Life	None
		Normal Schools	do	do	do	4 yearsdo.
		College of Industrial Arts	do	do	Diploma	2 yearsdo.
		State Superintendent	State Superintendent	State Board of Examiners	1st grade	Lifedo.
	3	State Superintendent	State Superintendent	State Board of Examiners	2d grade	6 yearsdo.
					1st grade	3 yearsdo.
					Permanent	6 yearsdo.
					Per. Primary	Life	\$3.00
	2	State Superintendent	do	Summer Normal B'd of Ex.	1st grade	Life	3.00
					do	6 years	3.00
					2d grade	4 years	3.00
					do	5 years	3.00
Utah		State Board of Education	State Board of Education	Committee appointed by State Board of Education	Permanent	Life	1.00
					Per. Primary	Life	1.00
					1st grade	6 years	1.00
					do	4 years	1.00
	3	County Superintendent	do	County Board of Examiners	2d grade	6 years	1.00
					do	4 years	1.00
					Permanent	Life	1.00
					1st grade	6 years	2.00
		City Board of Examiners	City Board of Examiners	City Board of Examiners	do	4 years	2.00
					2d grade	5 years	2.00
					do	3 years	2.00
					3d grade	1 year	2.00
Vermont		State Board of Education	State Board of Education	Committee appointed by State Board of Education	High school	Life	Not fixed by law ..
					do	4 years
					1st grade	Life
					do	4 years
		State Board of Education	State Board of Education	State Board of Education	Primary	Life
					do	4 years
					2d grade	4 years
					do	5 years
		Supt of Education	Supt of Education	Supt of Education	Diploma	Life
					State certif.	5 years
					Co. primary	1 year
					Co. grammar	1 year

Virginia	State Board of Examiners...	State Board of Examiners...	State Board of Examiners...	1st grade.....	5 years.....	do.....
	do.....	do.....	do.....	2nd grade.....	2 years.....	do.....
	do.....	do.....	do.....	3rd grade.....	1 year.....	do.....
	do.....	do.....	do.....	Professional.....	7 years.....	do.....
Washington	Sup't Public Instruction	State Board of Education.....	State Board of Education.....	Special.....	5 years.....	do.....
	do.....	do.....	do.....	Diploma.....	Life.....	\$3.00
	do.....	do.....	do.....	State certifi.....	5 years.....	3.00
	do.....	do.....	do.....	1st grade.....	5 years.....	1.00
	do.....	do.....	do.....	2nd grade.....	2 years.....	1.00
	do.....	do.....	do.....	3rd grade.....	1 year.....	1.00
West Virginia	State Board of Education	do.....	do.....	1st class.....	12 years.....	5.00
	do.....	do.....	do.....	2nd class.....	6 years.....	5.00
	State Superintendent	State Superintendent	State Superintendent	1st grade.....	5 years.....	2.00
	do.....	do.....	do.....	2nd grade.....	3 years.....	2.00
	do.....	do.....	do.....	3rd grade.....	1 year.....	2.00
Wisconsin	State Superintendent	State Board of Examiners	State Board of Examiners	Unlimited.....	Life.....	None
	do.....	do.....	do.....	state.....	Limited state.....	do.....
	do.....	do.....	do.....	Co. Sup't cert.....	Life.....	do.....
	County Superintendent	County Superintendent	County Superintendent	1st grade.....	5 years.....	do.....
	do.....	do.....	do.....	2nd grade.....	3 years.....	do.....
	do.....	do.....	do.....	3rd grade.....	1 year.....	do.....
Wyoming	Sup't Public Instruction	State Board of Examiners	State Board of Examiners	Professional.....	Life.....	1.50
	do.....	do.....	do.....	1st grade.....	4 years.....	1.50
	do.....	do.....	do.....	2nd grade.....	2 years.....	1.00
	do.....	do.....	do.....	3rd grade.....	1 year.....	1.00

THE POWER TO GRANT, RENEW, SUSPEND AND REVOKE CERTIFICATES.

In a really organized educational system the superintendent is the responsible head of the schools. The public naturally looks to him for the systematic organization of all available educational forces and for educational results, just as a company looks to its superintendent or business manager for economic efficiency and industrial results. No power should be withheld from the superintendent that is necessary to his own highest achievement, for his success is the success of the schools. It is unfair to hold him responsible for the work that is done and yet allow him no authority in the certification and selection of those upon whom his success as a supervisor most depends. He should have not only the certificating power but also a voice in the selection of the teachers that are to work under him. One of our states perhaps carries this idea to an extreme, giving to the township superintendent the power both to examine and to employ teachers. But in general it may be laid down as a principle in school administration that the certificating function should be closely associated with the supervisory function.

It may be said also that the certificating power is likely to be exercised by the superintendent with more discrimination than by a board of education. If scholarship were the only necessary qualification of the teacher this would not be the case, for a board is an impartial and therefore the proper instrument for determining a candidate's scholarship. It is an impartial body because personal considerations do not enter as a factor in the examination of an applicant. But there are other qualifications quite as important as scholarship. They are the personality of the candidate, his voice, manner and physical condition; his habits of life, his mental balance, his ability to command respect, and all those peculiar qualities which are not revealed by a scholastic examination but which are essential to success in teaching. There must be some one to determine these qualifications and no one can do this better than the superintendent. He should have the power to reject an applicant for a certificate no matter how high the scholarship if in his own judgment the personality of such applicant unfits him for the work of teaching.

Furthermore, it is desirable that for every certificate issued, renewed, suspended or revoked there be some one person who can be held responsible. If an incompetent person is granted a certificate it should be impossible for the superintendent to shift the blame from himself to another or to a collective and therefore more or less indefinite authority called a board of education. The superintendent is the proper person to assume the responsibility for every certificate issued, renewed, suspended or revoked.

RECOGNITION OF NORMAL SCHOOL, COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY GRADUATES.

It is almost the universal practice to give some recognition in the matter of granting certificates to those candidates who have had a normal school, college or university training. Only eight of the states do not authorize normal school graduates to teach without subjecting them to an examination. The rule apparently is to assume not only that they have acquired the scholastic qualifications for teaching, but that they will prove to be successful teachers, for they are granted the privilege to teach without examination, sometimes for life, and usually for long periods. It seems a wise educational policy to permit graduates of normal schools or colleges who have specially prepared themselves for the work of teaching at least to show their fitness to teach without being subjected to an examination. A certain quality and quantity of preparation should be recognized in the granting of certificates, whether that preparation is made in a normal school, a college or a university.

The following tabular statement shows the recognition to normal school and college graduates accorded in the various states:

Table Showing Recognition Given to Normal School, College and University Graduates in the Several States.

State.	Recognition.
Alabama	No recognition.
Arizona	Holders of diplomas issued by the Board of Education of the normal schools are eligible to teach in any public school of the territory.....
Arkansas.....	A diploma issued by the normal school board is equivalent to a professional license authorizing the holder to teach in any public school of the state for a period of six years, at the expiration of which time the diploma may be converted into a life certificate.....
California.....	A normal school diploma entitles the holder to a certificate corresponding in grade to the grades of the diploma from any county, or city and county board of education in the state. Graduates of the state university holding a normal school diploma are entitled to a high school certificate authorizing them to teach in any grammar and primary and in any high school in the state.
Colorado.....	A normal school diploma entitles the holder to teach in any of the public schools of the state when a certified copy thereof shall have been filed with the county superintendent of schools in the county wherein such graduate is teaching or proposes to teach.....
Connecticut.....	No recognition.
Delaware.....	A diploma or certificate of graduation from any respectable normal school or college entitles the holder to a certificate to teach in the free schools for one year...

Table Showing Recognition in the Several States—Continued.

State.	Recognition.
Florida.....	A diploma of graduation from either of the state normal colleges of the state entitles the holder to a first grade certificate without examination.....
Georgia.....	No recognition
Idaho.....	The State Board of Education has power to authorize the county superintendent to issue teachers' certificates to graduates of state normal schools and to graduates of any chartered college or university having the right to grant degrees, providing the applicant has been successfully engaged in teaching for at least twenty-seven months. Graduates of the University of Idaho who have finished the two years' course in the department of pedagogy or have taught successfully in the public schools of the state for five years are entitled to a state teacher's certificate.....
Illinois.....	No recognition.....
Indiana	After two years' successful teaching normal school graduates may receive a diploma entitling them to teach in any of the schools of the state.....
Iowa.....	Graduates from the regular and collegiate courses in the state university, state normal schools, and state colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts and from other institutions of higher learning in the state having regular and collegiate courses of equal rank may be accepted as evidence of scholarship and professional fitness for a state certificate.....
Kansas.....	A diploma from the state normal school serves as a legal certificate of qualification to teach in the common schools of the state.....
Kentucky.....	A diploma from the A. and M. College of Kentucky conferring the degree of bachelor of pedagogy is accepted as evidence of qualification to teach in the public schools of Kentucky during the life time of the holder unless he or she shall cease to teach for five consecutive years.
Louisiana.....	A diploma from the state normal school entitles the holder to a first grade certificate without examination, valid for five years, and to a degree of preference in the selection of teachers for the public schools.....
Maine.....	Certificates issued to teachers by normal principals may be rendered valid by the endorsement of the town school superintendents.....
Maryland	A holder of a diploma of a respectable college or the state normal school who has been a teacher for seven years of which five shall have been spent in the state of Maryland may receive a life certificate.....
Massachusetts.....	Diplomas granted by the state normal schools may be accepted in lieu of an examination.....

Table Showing Recognition in the Several States—Continued.

State.	Recognition.
Michigan	Certificates of the state normal schools entitle the holder to teach in any of the schools of the state for a period of five years. Graduation from the University of Michigan accompanied by a teacher's diploma for work done in the university in the science and the art of teaching serves as a legal certificate of qualification to teach in any of the schools of the state.....
North Dakota.....	A graduate of the normal college of the University of North Dakota or of any of the normal schools of that state who has had nine months successful experience as a teacher after graduation may be granted a State certificate good for five years. A diploma from the normal department of the University of North Dakota or of either of the normal schools of the state is equivalent to a state certificate good for three years if the holder has attained to the age of eighteen years.
Ohio.....	County boards of school examiners may make their own regulations in regard to granting certificates without formal examinations except in theory and practice of teaching and in the science of education to graduates of schools for the training of teachers providing at least a two years' course above a first grade high school and of colleges or universities providing at least a four years' course above a first grade high school. Certificates thus granted to such graduates may be issued on application within one year after graduation, first for one year, and at their expiration on certain evidence of success in teaching for a longer term.
Oklahoma.....	No recognition.....
Oregon.....	Diplomas from the regular state normal schools and from any other normal schools in the state providing an equivalent preparation and diplomas from any chartered institution of the state of collegiate or university grade granted upon the completion of a course consisting of at least five years work above the eighth grade are equivalent to the teaching experience required for a state certificate.....
Pennsylvania.....	Certificates of graduation in any of the normal schools are received as evidence of scholarship in every part of the state without further examination. No certificates of competence in the practice of teaching is issued to a regular graduate of any of the normal schools until after two years and two successful annual terms of actual teaching.....
Rhode Island.....	Trustees of the normal school or a committee of their board may examine applicants to teach in the public schools and give certificates to such as are found qualified.
South Carolina.....	A diploma from any chartered college or university of the state or from Meminger normal school of Charleston authorizes the holder to teach without examination.

Table Showing Recognition in the Several States—Continued.

State.	Recognition.
South Dakota.....	A diploma from any normal school having a course of study in which at least one year's work above an approved four year high school course is required may be accepted in lieu of an examination in the subjects named. Graduation from a normal school and evidence of eighteen months successful teaching entitles the applicant to a state certificate.....
Tennessee.....	Diplomas from the normal schools entitle the holders to teach in any county in the state without further examination.
Texas.....	A diploma from a Texas state normal school or from the Peabody Normal school at Nashville ranks as a permanent state certificate. A diploma conferred by the regents of the University of Texas has the force of a permanent state certificate. A certificate issued by the school of pedagogy to students completing the junior course is equivalent to a state certificate of the first grade for a period of two years. Graduates of recognized colleges or universities who have taught for a period of not less than three years in Texas may receive a permanent state certificate.....
Utah.....	Graduates of normal training schools of high standards are entitled to a certificate valid for two years. Normal certificates and normal diplomas issued by the University of Utah are equivalent to state certificates and the holder of a normal diploma, after two years' experience in teaching, is entitled to a high school diploma.
Vermont.....	A certificate of graduation from the lower course of a normal school in this state is a license to teach in the public schools for five years, and a certificate of graduation from the higher course is a license to teach in the public schools for ten years. A graduate of a normal school in another state approved by the superintendent of education may receive, without examination, a certificate of the first grade, valid for five years.
Virginia.....	Graduates of the normal schools, of the University of Virginia, the State Female Normal School, William and Mary College, Virginia Normal and Industrial Institute and the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute are entitled to a professional certificate good for seven years.
Washington.....	A diploma granted by the normal department of the State University entitles the holder to teach in any public school in the state during life. An elementary normal school certificate authorizes the holder to teach in any elementary school in the state for a period of two years, a secondary normal school certificate five years and a normal school diploma five years. A normal diploma and evidence of two years' successful teaching entitle the holder to a life certificate.....
West Virginia.....	First grade certificates are issued in duplicates to graduates of West Virginia University who have taken at least six courses in education and to graduates in the normal departments of the state normal school and its branches and to graduates of the normal department of the West Virginia Colored Institute.....

Table Showing Recognition in the Several States—Concluded.

State.	Recognition.]
Wisconsin	Graduates of the State University who have completed the course of pedagogical instruction and graduates of the state normal schools are entitled to a certificate good for one year. After one year's successful teaching the holder of a university or normal school diploma is entitled to an unlimited state certificate, good for a period not to exceed six years.....
Wyoming.....	Holders of diplomas from reputable universities, colleges and normal schools, presenting evidence of experience and good moral character, are recommended for a second grade certificate. Graduates of the Wyoming State University on whom the degree of B. A. or B. S. or bachelor of pedagogy or B. A. in education has been conferred are entitled to a first grade certificate.....

UNIFORM EXAMINATIONS.

The certificating power does not necessarily imply the power to examine the candidate to test his scholarship. In the plan proposed this function is assigned to the State Board of Education. The examination questions should be prepared by the State Board of Education, or under its direction, should be uniform throughout the State, and all examination papers should be graded by it or under its direction. This is one of the most important features of the proposed certificating plan. The arguments that may be adduced in support of it are many and, we think, incontrovertible.

In the first place it guarantees complete fairness in examinations. The questions for all applicants are identical. No personal considerations affect the grading of papers. Every candidate stands squarely on his own merits so far as his scholarship is concerned. If he fails he can not blame anyone but himself. Thus county superintendents will be relieved of unfavorable criticism by applicants and friends of applicants who are rejected on the grounds of insufficient scholarship. Superintendents will be relieved also of the importunity of persons who, though lacking in scholarship, endeavor to secure a certificate on grounds personal, social or political. In Wisconsin in 1900, according to returns made to the Superintendent of Public Instruction, ninety per cent of the county superintendents were unable to limit the issue of certificates to thoroughly qualified applicants.* It is not so bad as that in Illinois, but there are few superintendents in the State who have not been embarrassed by this kind of pressure.

In the second place the assumption by the State Board of Education of the work of preparing examination questions and grading papers will relieve the county superintendent of schools of a large amount of clerical work, and thus increase his opportunity for effective supervision. The average number of days employed by the county superintendents of Iowa in grading papers and making out and mailing

*Wisconsin School Report, 1899-1900, pp. 71-72.

returns, prior to the passing of the new law in that state for certifying teachers, was fifty days.* In Illinois the time thus consumed is less since there are fewer examinations than there were in Iowa. But it is considerable, and to add this time to that which is now devoted by the superintendent to school inspection should greatly increase the educational efficiency of our county school system.

In the third place uniform examinations will insure inter-county recognition of certificates and thus obviate the necessity of the teacher's passing an examination every time a county line is crossed. At present there are 102 county examining authorities in the State. Consequently there are 102 standards and modes of testing the fitness of candidates. It is to be expected that the examination questions in different counties would not be calculated to test equally the applicant's scholarship and that the markings of examination papers would not be uniform. Hence inter-county recognition is impossible under the present system. But under the proposed plan there would be but one examining authority in the matter of scholarship and the only ground for the refusal of a county superintendent to recognize a certificate from another county would be lack of personal fitness of the candidate and of course that would not be acted upon except in individual cases. The proposed plan, therefore, gives us what at present we do not have, namely, a State certifying system. There can be no system with 102 different county certifying authorities.

This point that the State Board of Education should grade the papers of applicants for certificates as well as prepare the questions for examinations is of such importance that it deserves further emphasis. Minnesota and South Dakota tried the plan of leaving the grading of paper with the county superintendents, but were obliged to give it up. If the State Board of Education should merely prepare the examination questions and leave the grading of the papers to the county superintendent it is obvious that there could not be or would not be general inter-county recognition of certificates. One county superintendent would not accept the grading of another county superintendent. But the principle of inter-county recognition is fundamental. If it were necessary for the county superintendent to surrender an important prerogative in order to secure the operation of this principle, the advantages that would accrue to the school system are sufficiently great to warrant such surrender. But the really important power, the certifying power, should not be withdrawn from the county superintendent. He should merely be relieved of the task of testing the applicant's scholarship.

It is easy to exaggerate the importance to the superintendent of the power to grade the papers of an applicant for a certificate. It has been held that it serves three purposes: First, it enables the county superintendent to judge the applicant more accurately than he otherwise could; second, it gives the superintendent power to keep out of his corps of teachers anybody he has a mind to keep out, simply by increasing the strictness of his grading; third, it is a means of maintaining the authority of the county superintendent over his teachers.

*Iowa School Report, 1904-5, p. 149.

As to the first point it may be said that the estimate of the county superintendent is formed not by grading the papers of the applicant but by reading them and this privilege is not withheld from him by the proposed plan. He may read the papers. If the superintendent should be in doubt as to the personal fitness of an applicant he ought indeed to read his papers and take into account his style and method and the general appearance of the papers as to form and neatness in arriving at his final judgment. The opportunity to do so is left with the county superintendent and therefore it can not be rightly claimed that the proposed plan deprives him of any basis or means of judging an applicant which is now in his possession.

As to the shutting out of undesirable candidates it is difficult to see how the grading of an applicant's answers to questions set by the State Board of Education could be made to serve that purpose without injustice to the applicant. If he fails to pass the scholarship test he excludes himself. If his scholarship is up to the standard it would be unfair to reject him on the ground that he failed in the examination. If he is rejected at all it should be done frankly on the ground that he lacks the necessary personal qualifications. It is doubtless an unpleasant duty to tell the person who applies for a certificate and passes the scholarship test that the certificate is refused him on the ground of his lack of personal fitness to teach, and it may be that for that reason under the proposed plan incompetency seeking entrance to the schools will not always meet with a determined resistance. Nevertheless, as all will agree, the duty of the county superintendent to the children of his county is perfectly plain. It is to reject incompetency. This is a duty which should not be shirked and to the imposition of which no really valid objection can be offered.

Finally, as to the maintenance of the superintendent's authority, it may be true that when a certain kind of teacher feels that he is entirely dependent upon the county superintendent for his grades and his certificate the authority of the county superintendent is more instantly and permanently recognized. But authority resting on this foundation and maintained in this manner is not of the kind coveted by thoughtful superintendents. There are other and better means of maintaining authority and establishing leadership. According to the proposed plan no certificate is renewable unless the holder gives evidence of professional progress. If, therefore, a teacher absents himself from the institute or refuses to carry out the instructions of the county superintendent with reference to professional study or declines to obey any just regulations the superintendent may refuse absolutely to renew his certificate. By the proposed plan he is even required to do so, and may not only compel such an offender to take an examination but may refuse him permission to teach altogether. What further power could the superintendent rightly desire?

The advantages of a uniform State system of examinations for teachers' certificates may be summarized as follows:

1. The State system is more widely systematic and consequently more economical to the State from a financial standpoint.

2. It tends to equalize the educational conditions of the different parts of the State by raising them to a higher level. The opportunity it extends to compare the qualifications possessed by teachers in different parts of the State will naturally tend to the promotion of school interests in localities which under the county system are backward.

3. It tends to the development of a uniform minimum of qualifications among teachers throughout the State.

4. It has been highly successful in the states which have adopted it, as the commission has ascertained by corresponding with the state and county superintendents of those states.

5. It relieves the county superintendent of much office work and thus gives him more time for visiting and supervising schools. It thus strengthens him in the exercise of his most important function.

6. It confines the issuing of certificates to those who are declared by the State Board of Education to be scholastically qualified to receive them, and thus relieves the county superintendent of the necessity of struggling against or yielding to social and political pressure in the matter of granting certificates.

7. It places the determination of the scholastic qualifications of all applicants for certificates in the hands of an impartial board, strangers to such applicants.

8. It leaves the matter of determining personal qualifications other than scholarship to him who has the best opportunity to determine such qualifications, namely, the superintendent of schools.

9. It places definitely the responsibility for granting or refusing to grant a certificate.

10. It forestalls the possible exercise of the certificating power for unworthy ends, as, for instance, to reward political friends.

11. It encourages academic and professional training for the work of teaching by placing a definite premium upon such training.

12. It relieves the teachers of the continual fear of examinations and the continuous necessity of preparing for them, while at the same time holding them to strict account in the matter of personal culture and professional progress.

13. It practically guarantees the intercounty recognition of certificates and thus tends to give mobility to the teaching force, enabling teachers to go from a place in which they are numerous, to those places in which they are scarce without subjecting them to the trouble and expense of additional examinations.

14. It offers special encouragement to those who are or expect to become professional school superintendents.

15. Finally, it tends to give a dignity to the calling of the teacher which will be instrumental in inducing ambitious young men and women to choose it for their life's work.

THE EXPERIENCE OF OTHER STATES WITH UNIFORM EXAMINATIONS.

The most convincing argument in favor of the adoption of the plan of certification proposed by the commission is perhaps the invariably successful experience of other states with the uniform system. This experience amounts practically to a demonstration that the plan would operate successfully in Illinois. Fifteen states already require that all examination questions be prepared and all examination papers be graded either by the superintendent of public instruction or by a state board. Inquiry has been made of the superintendents of these states in regard to how this system has worked. Without a single exception they have asserted its superiority over the county system. The following are extracts from some of the letters received:

Minnesota.—"Prior to 1899 the examination questions in this state were uniform. They were prepared by a committee of county superintendents and generally used throughout the state, but each county superintendent had his own standard of marking and was the sole judge of the fitness of candidates for certificates. Since then the system has been in vogue under which the State Superintendent's office prepares the questions, designates the time when the examinations must be held and examines the manuscripts submitted by teachers. There is no difference of opinion among educators in Minnesota as to the great advantages of the present system over the old one. It has resulted in raising the standard of requirements for teachers, has given the state a much better qualified force than it had before. Many of our county superintendents, being elected by small majorities, were, under the old system, subjected to severe pressure to issue certificates to those not qualified, and too often they yielded to this pressure, which, in many counties resulted in having a majority of teachers of very inferior grade. The State Superintendent's office, of course, is so far removed from local pressure that it is not in any way affected by it. The county superintendents are very glad to be relieved of the responsibility of passing upon the academic applications of applicants for certificates. I do not know of one who is in favor of repealing the present law and returning to the old system. I believe that some system of state uniformity and of examinations by a state board is desirable for every commonwealth in the union."—J. W. OLSEN, *Superintendent of Public Instruction*.

New York.—"Up to 1887 we had no uniform basis for teachers' certificates in this state. Local commissioners or superintendents licensed whomever they saw fit, and it must be admitted that they saw fit to license a great many who were not deserving. The thing was much influenced by politics and often teachers' certificates were given in consideration of political support. In 1887 we established a uniform system of teachers' examinations, which has been perfected from time to time until now. It is as thoroughly established in the educational policy of the state as anything can be. It has always commanded confidence and wide acceptance. It has advanced the average qualifications of teachers very materially, and, as it has limited the number holding teachers' certificates, it has operated to lessen competition for positions and thereby to advance wages."—A. S. DRAPER, *Commissioner of Education*.

Alabama.—"Previous to 1899 the several counties in this state conducted their own examinations through a county board of education. Nearly as many standards obtained as we have counties. In some counties but little care appeared to be exercised at times in the work of conducting the so-called examinations. Nine years ago the legislature of this state enacted a law requiring teachers, who receive any of the general school fund, to hold a certificate granted by a state board of examiners. * * * This law has proved one of the most popular and beneficial of all the legislative enactments touching schools during the last quarter of a century. The standard of teachers has been gradually raised, a uniformity exists throughout the state, the work of teaching is being recognized as a real profession, the increased efficiency of the public school system is everywhere apparent, inefficient teachers in the olden time have entered upon other means of obtaining a livelihood, and there is a general uplift and awakening among our people in all matters educational."—HARRY C. GUNNELL, *Superintendent of Education*.

Nebraska.—"The uniform system of examination has been in operation in Nebraska for nearly three years. We find the system working with reasonable satisfaction. There is a marked improvement in the ability of the teachers of the state already manifest. You will readily perceive by a study of the rules governing the examination that our system is absolutely impartial and impersonal. Candidates taking the examination are placed solely on their merit. The markers have no way of knowing whose papers they are working upon. I can see nothing in the way of such a system being carried on successfully in Illinois. Mail and express facilities are even

better in Illinois than in Nebraska. We experience no difficulty and practically no delay in the transmission of answer papers, examination reports and questions. Your state would experience even less inconvenience along these lines than Nebraska."—J. L. McBRIEN, *Superintendent*.

South Dakota.—"Prior to 1903 all examination questions were made out by the state department for all grades of certificates. The manuscript was marked by the state department for life diplomas and state certificates. First grade manuscript was marked by the county superintendent and reviewed by the state superintendent. In 1903 a change was made, requiring the state department to mark manuscripts for first and second grade certificates and in 1907 a further change was made requiring the state department to mark all manuscripts, giving the county superintendent authority on his own examination to issue temporary certificates valid no longer than till the time of the next regular examination. For the welfare of schools and the encouragement of teachers to do thorough preparation this system is excellent. It removes the marking of manuscripts to disinterested parties and avoids the local, political and social pressure sometimes brought to bear under the systems where the manuscript is marked by the county superintendent. It is the fairest system that can be devised to the school children." H. A. USTRAUD, *Superintendent, South Dakota*.

South Dakota.—"I am convinced that so far as this state is concerned (the uniform certification plan) has affected a veritable revolution during its brief history. The examinations thus far held have conclusively proven the progressiveness and elevating influences of the law. To my mind, state certification dignifies the profession of teaching, places every candidate entirely upon his merits, destroys all possibility of favoritism, and gives to the worthy teacher a credential in which he may take pride."—G. W. NASH, *Ex-State Superintendent*.

Arizona.—"This system does away with so many irregularities in the conduct of the examinations, and at the same time secures to the teacher a credential that relieves her of the loss of time and annoyance, in taking examinations, whenever she removes from one county to another, that a return to the old county system of certification would be universally opposed both by teachers and school officers. It seems to me that a mere statement of the system ought to convince anyone of its advantages and superiority over the county system, without any argument whatever."—R. L. LONG, *Superintendent of Public Instruction*.

Wyoming.—"Under the old plan of county superintendents giving the examinations and grading the papers, it was impossible to have the questions in the same subjects equally comprehensive. And as the different superintendents were so unequally qualified, the papers were not graded on a uniform basis. It can be readily seen that the questions given by one superintendent might be more difficult and the papers more closely marked than would be done by another superintendent. The board of examiners are acquainted with but a very small percentage of applicants and the papers are thus marked entirely on merit. * * * I believe this system could be adopted in a state as large as Illinois to great advantage. It is my opinion that the greater the number of persons through whom certificates are issued the less uniform they are, and though Wyoming has but thirteen county superintendents, we find this system vastly more satisfactory than any other which has been adopted. I sincerely hope your state may see fit to adopt this method of certification, for I feel sure it will prove satisfactory to all educational workers."—A. D. COOK, *State Superintendent*.

North Dakota.—"Our present examination law is reasonably satisfactory, so far as it applies to county superintendents. The questions are prepared under the direction of the state superintendent and he appoints the persons who read and mark the examination papers written by the applicants. This obviates, to a great extent, favoritism and the bringing of pressure to bear upon the examiner by parties interested. It makes one standard for the entire state, which is something desirable."—W. L. STOCKWELL, *Superintendent*.

To these extracts may be added a statement from the last report (page 25) of Hon. J. D. Eggleston, Jr., superintendent of public instruction, Virginia, and also a paragraph from a paper by State Superintendent Thos. C. Miller, of West Virginia, read before the department of superintendence in Louisville in 1906. Superintendent Eggleston says: "The state should not go back to the former method of permitting the local superintendents to examine and grade the papers for their several divisions. This would be to make again more than 100 different standards by which teachers would be graded. The present method of having a central board to issue uniform questions and grade all papers comes as near to being an ideal plan as any that has yet been devised." Superintendent Miller's paper is a discussion of the question of minimum salaries for teachers. In it he said: "But a more potent influence on salaries for teachers is the uniform examination system provided for early in 1903. Like a thunderclap came this new law, and at first there was almost consternation in the teaching ranks; but now the system is viewed as having wrought the greatest amount of good in the shortest period of time that any educational measure has ever produced in the state. The certificates issued by the state superintendent are valid in any county, and this new measure has, without doubt, had more effect in increasing salaries than the minimum wage law itself. Boards of education, in order to retain the best teachers, have been compelled to advance salaries, and there is considerable competition, not only between counties, but between magisterial districts in the same county, for the services of the more competent instructors. It is true that districts with less material development and scant financial resources may for a time seem to be at a disadvantage, but the effect of the uniform examination system has been to increase teachers' salaries very materially, and it is now almost universally commended. Of course, there are many other features of this new system that are recognized as having wrought much for our educational upbuilding, but we do not underestimate the influence of the uniform examinations in advancing teachers' wages."

An inquiry concerning the state system of examining teachers as compared with the county system was also sent to county superintendents in different states. The replies have been invariably favorable to the state system. The following are extracts from a few letters received:

"No county system of granting certificates can do justice to the teachers certified. Personal interests will creep in. The system now in use in New York weeds out the poor scholar but not always the poor teacher. However, with a state board grading the answer papers and a competent board of inspectors it is possible to have teachers of ability both as to education and as to ability to instruct. This we are beginning to have in New York state."
—PRATT E. MARSHALL, *Com. First Chautauqua District, Sherman, N. Y.*

"Responding to your circular of July 9th, I would say first, that in general I prefer the state uniform system to any of the various county systems for the examination and certification of teachers. This conclusion has been reached after personal experience with the systems in vogue in Kansas, North Dakota, Pennsylvania and West Virginia, and after a careful study of the matter, as chairman of the committee on education in the House of Delegates, which passed our present uniform law. In my judgment, the state

system is preferable, first, because of its advantages to the teachers. By it the teacher has a standing throughout the state and the way is open before him for a broader view of educational interests. The consequent wider exchange of teachers and school ideas is a healthful stimulation to better work. Second, the state system is preferable because it prevents the unwise lowering of standards that always occurs in more or fewer instances under the county system. This system also takes the examinations and granting of certificates further out of the reach of political or other local influences."—M. P. SHAWKEY, *County Superintendent and Editor West Virginia Educator, Charleston, W. Va.*

"The present system of having the questions made out and the papers corrected by the state committee is entirely satisfactory. The uniformity thus brought about has raised the standard of the teaching profession and stimulated effort throughout the whole educational system. We would not willingly go back to the old way."—MARGARET E. BROWN, *County Superintendent, Grand Island, Nebraska.*

"As county superintendent of schools of this county I have worked under the system of examinations by this office and am now working under the new plan of examinations by the state. Results prove conclusively that the present system gets better results in the school room."—W. F. LORIN, *County Superintendent, Mandan, North Dakota.*

"In reply to yours of the 9th asking my opinion of the present system of certification in this state, I am glad to say that I think it a very marked improvement over the one that was formerly in use here. Making the marking of the papers an impersonal matter, then asking the county superintendent for his personal estimate of the applicant's ability to teach, seems to me about as satisfactory a way to deal with would-be teachers as can be practiced at present. In the interests of progress and uniformity, I hope your state will adopt a system similar to ours."—A. H. SEYMOUR, *County Superintendent, De Smet, S. D.*

"In my opinion our present system of conducting examinations, grading papers and issuing certificates through a state board of examiners supervised by the state board of education is vastly superior to our old method, similar to the one now in use in your state."—C. A. HARDWICK, *Dis. Supt. Schools, Giles Co., Va.*

"There is hardly a teacher in the state who would like to revert to the old system of examination by questions prepared and graded by the county superintendent. This system has culled out the incompetent teachers, thus causing a scarcity of teachers throughout the state, hence an increase of wages and better teachers. Certificates granted under this system are valid throughout the state, hence doing away with the necessity of teachers taking the examination in different counties. Salaries have increased from a minimum of \$28.00 to \$40.00 for first grade certificates and other grades in proportion. Taken as a whole this system is building up the schools of West Virginia rapidly and is a step far in advance of the old system of county examination."—WILLIS F. EVANS, *County Supt., Berkley Co., Martinsburg, W. Va.*

THE CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS IN IOWA.

The experience of Iowa is of sufficient importance to justify a separate discussion. In Iowa, until recently, a state board of examiners consisting of five persons issued, on examination, state diplomas, state certificates and special certificates. County superintendents, on examinations conducted by themselves and for which they prepared the questions, issued county certificates of two grades, good only in the county. The county superintendent had no power to endorse certificates from another county or to renew a certificate issued by himself.

Two years ago a new plan was adopted. Under this new plan the state educational board of examiners issues all certificates, county as well as state. County examinations are conducted by the county superintendents on questions provided by the state educational board of examiners. At the completion of a county examination the county superintendent forwards to the superintendent of public instruction a list of all applicants examined, with the standings of each in didactics and oral reading, as determined by him, and his estimate of each applicant's personality and general fitness, other than scholarship, for the work of teaching. He forwards also the answer papers of the applicants with the exception of those in didactics. These papers are graded under the direction of the board and the results are entered upon a certificate provided by the board, which certificate is transmitted to the county superintendent of the county in which the applicant resides for delivery to him. No certificate is good in a county until it is registered with the county superintendent of that county. The registration fee is one dollar. A certificate may, of course, be validated in any county by registration in that county.

It will be observed that the Iowa plan is essentially the same as that here proposed so far as uniformity of examinations is concerned. The Superintendent of Public Instruction, Hon. John F. Riggs, writes that, "When the system was first inaugurated there was much criticism from persons who were not able to successfully pass the examinations, and from others who were not sufficiently informed. The newspaper criticism that was rife last summer and fall has subsided and it is safe to say the battle has been fought and won in Iowa. With a separate standard in every county it is absolutely impossible to have anything approaching uniformity in the matter of licensing teachers, and the result is that a certificate issued in the one county can not safely be accepted in another." Inasmuch as the change in Iowa is recent and consequently the contrast between the workings of the old plan and the new is still vivid in the minds of the county superintendents, it was thought that it would be especially interesting and informative to secure from the county superintendents from that state their opinions in regard to the law after it has had two years' trial. Accordingly a list of questions bearing upon the merit and workings of the new law was sent to each of the county superintendents of the state. Of the ninety-nine county superintendents in Iowa, eighty-one replied.

The questions presented were as follows:

1. Do you regard the present method of certification as superior to the former method?
2. Has the change in the method of certification strengthened or weakened the county superintendent in his work of supervising schools?
3. Has the new law reduced or increased the annoyances of the county superintendent?
4. Has the new law affected favorably or unfavorably the standing of the county superintendent as a school officer?
5. Does the new law, in your opinion, tend to raise the standard of the teaching force?
6. Is the new law more or less satisfactory than the old law to the teachers themselves?

The replies to these questions show that so far as the Iowa superintendents are concerned they are almost unanimous in support of the law. To the first question, "Do you regard the present method of certification as superior to the former method?" seventy-three answer yes, many of them adding some emphatic expression of opinion as "decidedly," "very much superior," "far superior," "most emphatically," "there can be no question about it," "most assuredly," "indeed I do," and the like. The following is characteristic: "Our law is splendid. I have worked under the old way, too. I know personally that our present method is much to be preferred." One superintendent declares "it has increased the professional interest of my teachers about fifty per cent for the first year. Our schools are in better shape, due to the new law." Eight superintendents are doubtful in regard to the superiority of the law, or think it has not had time to prove that it is superior. Some of these express the conviction that time will prove its superiority.

To the second question, "Has the change in the method of certification strengthened or weakened the county superintendent?" fourteen superintendents answer that it is too early to determine whether it has or not. Nine think the superintendent has been weakened because he has been deprived of the certifying power. Fifty-five, however, answer that the new law has strengthened the county superintendent by making it possible for him to spend more time in visiting schools and conducting teachers' meetings. His power as a supervisor is strengthened. One declares, "It has strengthened the real superintendent and probably weakened the mere politician." Another says, "It has strengthened his power unless he be a driver rather than a leader."

As to whether the new law has reduced or increased the annoyances of the county superintendent (the third question), nine answer that no change has been noticed. Sixteen think their annoyances are increased, and fifty-four say that the law has resulted in a reduction of the annoyances of the county superintendent. "In time it will reduce the annoyances," says one superintendent, "but just now the shortage of teachers is causing us a great deal of trouble and the people, knowing that we are short, are causing a great deal of annoyance by asking for permits to teach when of course we are unable to grant them."

The fourth question was, "Has the new law affected favorably or unfavorably the standing of the county superintendent as a school officer?" Twenty eight superintendents had noticed no change. Nine were inclined to think that the standing of the superintendent had been affected unfavorably but were not positive in regard to it. Three expressed no opinion. One prominent superintendent says, "Probably from the old standpoint it has had an unfavorable effect. He is looked on now in some quarters as a mere clerk. When the law is better understood it probably will place the county superintendent in a more favorable light." Another says, "In the popular opinion, I suppose, it has affected him unfavorably; for people think that since the only thing that county superintendents ever did (!) has been taken away from them, it certainly has reduced his power. I think that the opposite is true." Forty superintendents, however, are decidedly of the opinion

that the law has affected favorably the standing of the county superintendent. "It has, in my opinion," says one, "raised the dignity of the office. Best of all it has started us out for the first time in a real profession." "It is my impression," says another, "that the superintendent is thought of by teachers and patrons more as a supervisor than as an examining clerk."

In answering the fifth question, "Does the new law in your opinion tend to raise the standard of the teaching force?" sixty-nine say "yes," eight say "no" and four reply that they have noticed no change. One of the older superintendents says, "I think it does. It certainly cuts out those who are not prepared to take a full examination and have their papers graded at Des Moines. It has made considerable difference, in county. Wages have advanced in many rural schools." Another says, "The teachers under my supervision are working harder than ever. Nearly all are following some line of professional reading. The requirements have been raised and the teachers are trying to reach that requirement." Still another says, "Yes, in this county. A good many of the old teachers who had been teaching school on second grades, and a few who had first grades, were unable to pass the examination and have been dropped, and almost all who are now teaching are doing work to raise their grades, and a good many are reading professional books." "Teachers are coming to the opinion," says another superintendent, "that if they expect to teach they must fit themselves first and not use a school as a place to get a little money to go to school on." Still another says, "I know it does raise the standard in the state. As far as my county is concerned there is very little change. Only one teacher who had taught under the old law failed under the new. Only four received a lower grade of certificate."

On the sixth question, "Is the new law more or less satisfactory to the teachers themselves?" five are in doubt, six answer "less" and sixty-nine say that it is more satisfactory. One does not answer. Many say in substance that it is more satisfactory to the competent teachers, less to the incompetent. "To the really good teachers, those who have an education and training which really fit them to be teachers," says one, "the law is without question satisfactory. The poorly educated teacher, without professional training, of course has a harder time." "The teachers were afraid of the change at first," says another, "but now they are well satisfied, and many of our teachers have worked up to a better certificate than they held under the old law." Still another says, "At first there were so many misrepresentations by the press that the teachers became uneasy. Since they have come to understand it the progressive all approve. If put to a test I am confident that teachers would strongly uphold it. To the same effect another says, "To the good teachers it is much more satisfactory, but the poor ones and the incompetent do not like it at all. In time we are going to have a teachers' profession in Iowa. Then all the teachers will approve of the law that helped to create the profession." Perhaps a fair judgment

is that of a superintendent who answers, "this, too, can not yet be determined, as one of the most attractive features of the law, the renewal of certificates without examination and without regard to a change of superintendents, has not had time to begin its operations."

THE CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS IN ILLINOIS.

Under the present system the Superintendent of Public Instruction is authorized "to grant State certificates to teachers qualified to receive them." County superintendents of schools are required "to hold meetings quarterly, and oftener, if necessary, for the examination of teachers, and are authorized to grant certificates of the first and second grades, certificates authorizing the holders to teach a special subject, and kindergarten certificates." Boards of education in cities of one hundred thousand inhabitants have power "to examine all persons offering themselves as candidates for teachers, and when found well qualified, to give them certificates gratuitously." The boards of smaller cities are authorized "to examine teachers as supplemental to any other examination." In at least one of the schools operating under special charters teachers are required to hold two certificates, one from the county superintendent of schools and one from the city board of education.

It will be seen at a glance, then, that whatever may be the effectiveness of the present method of certifying teachers it is lacking in uniformity. So far as we have a system at all it is a county system. Since there are 102 counties in the State there are 102 standards of qualification for county certificates. It is natural that these standards should vary. In some counties they will be low, in others high. In some emphasis will be laid upon certain qualifications which in other counties may not be regarded as particularly important. Academic and professional training will receive in some counties possibly more recognition than they deserve, in others less. In some counties there will be frequent examinations, in others only the minimum number required by law.

Now the commission has been led to the conviction that examinations for county certificates should be held in the various county seats throughout the State on the same day; that all questions for these examinations should be prepared by the State Board of Education and should be uniform throughout the State; that the examination papers of applicants for certificates should be graded under the direction of the State Board, and the standing of these applicants should be certified to the county superintendents with whom the responsibility of granting certificates to such applicants should be left. This would give a completely uniform system of examinations.

The history of school legislation in Illinois affecting the certification of teachers shows a gradual and, on the part of some, a reluctant advancement towards a general and uniform plan. At first the trustees of schools were the certifying authority. When it was proposed to take away from them the power to examine teachers and grant certificates and vest that power in the county school commissioner, objections were

made. A compromise was affected by dividing the power of 1841. The law of 1845 authorized the county school commissioners to examine and certificate teachers, but it provided also that "the trustees of schools in their respective townships shall have the same power to examine teachers as is given to the school commissioners." Finally the township plan gave way completely to the county plan. This county plan has been in operation for more than fifty years. During all this time the educational needs and conditions of the State have been growing more homogeneous. Our school system has become a State system. We have now arrived at a stage of development in which the county system of examining teachers should give place to the State system.

The advantages of a State system of certificating teachers, as demonstrated by fifteen of the states, are many. They have already been set forth. It will be interesting, however, to reconsider some of them with special reference to Illinois. They would accrue to the State itself, especially to county superintendents of schools and the teachers, and indirectly of course to the schools.

As to the advantages accruing to the State they are all that are derived from the system, for the State is the final beneficiary of every advantage which arises from improved methods in educational administration. If the State plan of certification is instrumental, for instance, as the commission believes it would be, in securing better supervision of schools and a better grade of teaching, the State will obviously benefit from these results. But the larger system of certificating teachers would bring an immediate advantage to the State that is at least worth mentioning, and that is the financial saving that would result. During the past year there were in the State 829 county examinations for certificates. That means there were 829 sets of examination questions prepared, the same number of printers bills, and the same number of bills for the various items of expense connected with conducting an examination. Under the State plan there would probably be in each county four examinations a year. There ought not to be more. When the standard of teachers' qualifications is sufficiently high they may be reduced to one as has already been done in California. There would then be under the State plan only four sets of questions prepared annually, only four printers bills, and the incidental expenses of conducting 408 examinations instead of 829. Again, during the past year there were examined in the State 16,616 applicants for certificates, and 11,859 certificates were granted. It is obvious that in the mere matter of providing certificates there would be a considerable saving, for they could be purchased in a large quantity for a sum much less than that which is now paid by the 102 county superintendents of schools.

This is sufficient perhaps to show that the State plan of certification is more economical than the present plan. But the advantage to the State thus directly arising is inconsiderable in comparison with those which would be derived from the improved supervision of schools and the better quality of teaching which, as might naturally be expected and as the experience of other states has shown, will result from the uniform plan. There will be better supervision because the county superinten-

dents of schools, being relieved from the merely clerical work of reading and grading some one hundred and fifteen thousand examination papers, will have more time for supervision; and there will be better teaching both on account of better supervision and also because under the proposed plan the academic and professional requirements of teachers will gradually be raised.

Turning now to the question of how the State plan of certification would affect the county superintendent of schools it will be seen, as already suggested, that it gives him a better chance to do the real, necessary, essential and vital work of a superintendent. It needs to be emphasized that the examination of teachers to determine their scholastic qualifications is no essential part of school supervision. He who imagines that such examination is the chief function of the county superintendent and that he would be weakened if relieved of that work has a very inadequate conception of the duties and possibilities of that officer. The county superintendent of schools should visit the schools of his county, not once a year but many times, observe the conditions of the work of those schools, suggest improvements, draft general plans of instruction and professional reading to be followed by his teaching force, and devote himself in every possible manner to stimulating a progressive, professional spirit among his teachers and to provide opportunities for the exercise of that spirit. If he does all this he will have no time to devote to examinations.

The really essential function of a county superintendent is that of granting, renewing and revoking certificates, and that power should be left to him unimpaired. He may then say who, among those who have the necessary scholastic qualifications, shall teach, who shall not, and from his decision there is no appeal. He may determine in most instances just how much professional progress on the part of a teacher is necessary to justify him in renewing a certificate. These prerogatives give him a control over the teachers of his county which nothing but a strong belief that he will exercise it wisely can justify placing it in his hands. It places upon him, too, a great responsibility, for responsibility is inseparable from power. What ever objections may be raised to the proposed plan of certification, then, let it not be said that it weakens the county superintendent or indicates a lack of confidence in his intelligence and discretion. The opposite is true.

Another advantage which the proposed plan of certification will bring to the county superintendent is relief from the importunity of incompetent persons, and the friends of such persons, who beseech him for one reason or another to grant certificates to those who are not qualified educationally to receive them. The pressure of political influence will no longer be felt for the reason that in at least the great majority of these cases it can not become effective. The value of the advantage here suggested will be fully appreciated only by county superintendents themselves.

These advantages are so obvious that they must be admitted by all. But notwithstanding their nature and importance there may be those who will contend that, while it might be well to permit the State Board

of Education to prepare uniform examination questions for all the counties, yet the duty of reading and grading the examination papers of applicants for certificates should remain with the county superintendent. This might seem to be a sort of compromise between the county plan of certification and the State plan. The suggestion of such a compromise, however, betrays an entire misconception of the essential features of the State plan of certification. If urged at all that county superintendents should grade the papers, it will be upon the ground that by reading them the county superintendent will be able to form a more definite and a juster estimate of the applicant's scholarship and personality. But under the State plan he would not have to trouble himself about the applicant's scholarship for that would be determined by an impartial board. It will remain for him to judge the personal qualifications of the applicant other than scholarship. Now, how many papers of an applicant will it be necessary for a superintendent to grade for the impression they will give him of the applicant's personality? Certainly not the entire number he will write in an examination. But if the superintendent should wish to read them all there is nothing in the proposed plan to prevent him from doing so. If he is a just and conscientious superintendent he will use all available means to enable him to form a correct estimate of the personal qualities of the applicant, and the reading of some of her papers may be one of them, but the determination of the exact grade which should be given to those papers is not a necessary means to that end.

The reasons why the grading of papers ought not to be left to the county superintendent are very clear. The most important of them are three in number. First, it would leave the superintendent burdened with a large mass of clerical work from which his efficiency as a superintendent of schools requires that he be relieved. Second, it would leave him still subject to all the forms of social and political pressure to grant certificates to unworthy persons which is now brought to bear upon him. Third, and most important perhaps, it would leave the State with 102 county certifying authorities, the same number of standards of qualifications, and thus make impossible the inter-county recognition of certificates and the consequent freedom of movement among the teachers of the State which is one of the chief merits of the proposed plan. These three reasons are sufficient to show that a compromise of the kind suggested would be in reality a surrender of the uniform plan of certification. No argument can be advanced in favor of such a modification of the proposed plan that is not unsound or disingenuous.

So much to show the relation of the State plan of certification to the work of the county superintendent. Let us now consider its effects upon a class of persons equally interested and two hundred and eighty times as numerous, namely, the teachers of the State.

The commission has repeatedly declared that the proposed plan of certification has reference particularly to those who may enter the profession of teaching after the proposed plan is adopted. It has no intention of driving from the schools those now engaged in teaching, and

it has certainly no desire to disturb the educational work of the State by creating a shortage of teachers. It is well aware that in order to be effective a new plan of certification should operate not merely to elevate in some general way the profession of teaching, which is an abstraction, but should be calculated, first, to encourage and improve the present force of teachers, and, second, to insure better academic and professional preparation on the part of prospective teachers. It should create no immediate disturbance in existing conditions. The educational work of the State should move gradually to a higher level and should not be crippled by driving from the service of the schools those who are now doing good work in them.

An examination of the plan proposed by the commission as expressed in the draft of the bill to provide for the certification of teachers will show beyond dispute that not a single teacher in the State has anything to fear from the enactment of the proposed law. All, however, have much to gain. They will receive in exchange for the certificates they now hold certificates valid for a longer term; in the renewal of their certificates and in examinations for certificates of a higher grade, their experience and success in teaching will be accepted in lieu of professional training; certificates granted under the new plan will be valid in any county of the State on the endorsement of the county superintendent of that county; there will be fewer examinations, the emphasis being laid not on formal tests of the teacher to determine her text book knowledge, but upon growth in culture and professional spirit and knowledge. Teachers, therefore, have everything to gain by the proposed plan and absolutely nothing to lose.

In order to make the transition from the present county plan of certification to the proposed uniform State system as easy and simple as possible, the plan of the commission provides for an exchange of certificates, in which exchange the teacher is bound to derive an advantage.

By the present plan of certifying teachers the county superintendent may grant four kinds of certificates, namely, a second grade, a first grade, a special and a kindergarten certificate. By the proposed plan he is authorized to grant three grades of elementary school certificates, two of high school certificates, a kindergarten certificate and a special certificate. A third grade elementary certificate and the lower form of the high school certificate are limited or temporary certificates, that is, the granting of them may be discontinued at the option of the State Board of Education.

Now, if the proposed plan should be adopted all county certificates in force at the time of adoption may be exchanged for certificates of equal grade, that is, "a second grade elementary for a second grade elementary or a second grade high school certificate, a first grade for a first grade high school certificate, a special certificate for a special certificate, a kindergarten for a kindergarten certificate; or, in case the holder of a first grade certificate shall have had three years of successful work as a supervisor of schools he may, with the approval of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, exchange such certificate for a five year supervisory certificate."

Observe now the advantage offered to the teacher. Let us suppose the case of a teacher who holds at the time when the proposed plan goes into effect a second grade county certificate. Such certificate is valid for one year in the county in which it is issued. Let us further suppose that this teacher is not a graduate of a high school and has had no professional training. She has taught successfully, however, and when the new plan goes into effect her certificate is about to expire. She presents it for exchange and receives a certificate good for two years in the county in which it is granted and in any other county of the State when endorsed by the superintendent of such county, renewable on evidence of successful teaching and professional progress—a certificate which if she were not already in the teaching profession would require of her a high school preparation or its equivalent. The advantage of the exchange is obvious.

Or consider the nature of the exchange in the case of a teacher who holds a first grade certificate. Under the present law a first grade certificate requires merely an examination in the common branches, the elements of the natural sciences including physiology and the laws of health. It is good for two years and only in the county in which it is issued. This certificate would be exchangeable under the new plan for a first grade certificate, good for three years in any county in the State on the endorsement of the superintendent and renewable indefinitely on evidence of successful teaching and professional progress. Teachers who now hold first grade certificates need never be subjected to another examination if the new plan goes into effect and if they show evidence of self-improvement by general and professional reading, and evidence of a professional spirit by the quality of their work and by taking advantage of the opportunities provided for the development of that spirit.

The advantages of the proposed plan of certification to the teachers of the State holding county certificates are sufficiently obvious without further illustration. As to those holding State certificates they will not be subjected to the slightest inconvenience. The validity of State certificates already issued will not be affected in the least by the proposed plan. Holders of such certificates will retain all their rights. State certificates issued subsequently to the adoption of the proposed plan will, however, be of a different form. A life elementary school certificate, a life high school certificate and two forms of supervisory certificates, a five-year certificate and a life certificate, will be issued. As to the purpose of the supervisory certificates they are designed to encourage and develop the professional supervisor and educational leader and to offer honorable recognition of special preparation on the part of those who intend to make the supervision of schools their special work. After some date in the future, say, July 1, 1914, a supervisory certificate should be the pre-requisite of employment in the work of school supervision. If, now, in view of the advantages which the proposed plan of certification offers to those already in the service it is thought that the requirements for entrance upon the work of teaching are too rigid, it will be found on a careful examination of the plan that careful provision is made to prevent shutting out any person who has the necessary quali-

cations to teach, whether these qualifications are the result of school attendance or not. Section 8 of the proposed bill provides that a future applicant for a certificate who can not show that he possesses a high school education may be admitted to an examination to determine whether he possesses an equivalent preparation. The door of opportunity to teach is thus left open to all who are really fitted for entrance.

There is one other feature of the proposed plan which will not be passed without notice. The commission proposes that a second grade county certificate may be issued without examination, to graduates of recognized normal schools or of institutions offering an equivalent preparation; and that the graduates of a recognized college or university who shall have had one year of successful teaching may be granted a high school certificate. This recommendation is made after due deliberation, and without a particle of doubt that this feature of the plan is both just and wise. The granting of special recognition to those who have specifically prepared themselves for teaching is almost the universal practice among the states. It arises from no disposition to favor any schools or any class of students. It is due to the fact that the premium thus placed upon special training for a special work is a good educational policy. We have already in the school law of the State the provision that the diplomas of graduates of a county normal school which, when directed by the board in control of such school, shall be taken by the county superintendent as sufficient evidence of qualification to entitle the holder to a first grade certificate. This provision should be extended, though in the opinion of the commission a first grade certificate should not be granted until evidence is given by successful experience of ability to teach. The extension of such recognition would go far toward giving something of a professional standing to the work of teaching. The State expends annually over \$300,000 for the support of schools established primarily for the purpose of training teachers. It has the right to expect that the graduates of these schools who offer themselves for teaching are fitted, so far as their training is concerned, for teaching, and such persons have the right to expect that on the completion of a prescribed course of academic and professional training they will be permitted to teach without being subjected to an examination on exactly the same terms as if they had presented themselves with no preparation whatever.

FEES FOR EXAMINATIONS.

In many of the states the examining authority is required by law to collect from every applicant for teacher's certificate a certain fee, ranging from fifty cents to ten dollars, and a fee is also exacted for the renewal of a certificate. During the year ending June 30, 1908, Illinois thus collected from her teachers, actual and prospective, about \$27,000. This tax is imposed on a class of public servants who are admittedly underpaid. It would be difficult to defend the practice on the ground of justice. It might be defended as expedient in the case of a state which was unable to raise a sufficient amount of revenue to carry on its educational work. But there are no such states. It is the teacher

whose means oftentimes are deficient. It is hardly good policy to require a public servant to pay for the privilege of offering himself for public service. It would seem, therefore, that fees for teachers' certificates should be abolished.

The real cost of examining teachers is, as a rule, less than the fee required. In West Virginia for the year ending June 30, 1908, \$5,000 was appropriated for the examination of teachers. There were 6,482 applicants for certificates. The cost of examining each applicant was, therefore, 77 cents. During the past six years the total appropriation of West Virginia for the purpose of examining teachers was \$22,000. During that period there were 30,000 applicants. The average cost per applicant during the six years, was, therefore, 73 $\frac{1}{3}$ cents. In the state of Iowa in the October 1908 examination there were 2,057 applicants for certificates. The average number of papers presented by these applicants was about 10,000, and the entire expense of the examination was \$1,100, or 54 cents per applicant. In view of these facts it seems that the examination of a teacher costs the state about 75 cents. Fees, however, are rarely less than one dollar and in many cases more than that sum.

The plan of the commission, as contained in the bill recommended, contemplates the abolition of all fees for examinations.

PLAN OF CERTIFICATION PROPOSED BY THE COMMISSION.

In view of the manifest advantages of a uniform system of examinations, and after the most thorough consideration of the conditions sought to be remedied, the commission presents its complete plan of certification in the form of the following bill:

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the People of the State of Illinois represented in the General Assembly:* That no one shall receive for teaching in the common schools of this State any part of any public school fund who is not of good character, at least eighteen years of age and who does not, at the time he enters upon his duties, hold a certificate of qualification covering the entire period of his employment and granted by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, a county superintendent or, in a city having a population exceeding 100,000 inhabitants, by the board of education of such city.

Sec. 2. Certificates granted by the Superintendent of Public Instruction and the requirements for the same shall be as follows:

First—A life elementary school certificate for which the requirements shall be graduation from a recognized high school and from a recognized normal school, or an equivalent preparation, and three years' successful teaching on a first grade county certificate of which two shall have been in the State, a successful examination in English, psychology, and the principles and methods of teaching, and the preparation of a thesis on one or more elementary school problems, the subject or subjects of which shall be selected from a list prescribed by the State Board of Education.

Second—A life high school certificate for which the requirements shall be graduation from a recognized college or university, or the completion of an equivalent preparation, and three years' successful teaching, two of which shall have been in the State on a first grade certificate; a successful examination in English, psychology and the principles and methods of teaching, and the preparation of a thesis on one or more secondary school problems, the subject or subjects of which shall be selected from a list prepared by the State Board of Education.

Third.—Supervisory certificates of two grades, first and second. A second grade supervisory certificate shall be valid for five years for supervisory work in any town, city or county of the State and for teaching in the schools supervised by the holder. The requirements of such certificate shall be the same as for a first grade elementary school certificate, and, in addition thereto, a successful examination in psychology, the history of education, school supervision, administration and organization, and the school system and school laws of Illinois: *Provided, however*, that successful experience in school supervision may be accepted in lieu of successful experience in teaching. This certificate shall be renewable for five year periods on satisfactory evidence of successful teaching, or supervision, and of professional progress.

A first grade or life supervisory certificate shall be valid for supervisory work in any town, city or county, and for teaching in any school in the State. The requirements for this certificate shall be the same as for a life high school certificate, with the exception that time spent in supervision may be counted in lieu of teaching; and in addition thereto a successful examination in all the subjects required for a second grade supervisory certificate, sociology and such other school systems of other states and countries as may be prescribed from time to time by the State Board of Education.

Life certificates in force at the time of the passage of this Act shall be valid for both teaching and supervising in any district in the State.

Sec. 3. Examinations for State certificates shall be held at such times and places and under such rules as may be prescribed by the State Board of Education. To each person who is successful in the examination for a State certificate the Superintendent of Public Instruction shall issue a certificate of the kind applied for, if, in his judgment, the personality of such applicant and his general qualifications other than scholarship prepare him for the work which the certificate would authorize him to perform.

Sec. 4. A life certificate shall be valid in any district of the State outside of cities having a population exceeding 100,000 inhabitants, but shall lapse three years after the person to whom it is issued ceases to engage in educational work, unless it shall have been renewed within that time by the Superintendent of Public Instruction. The holder of any certificate granted by the Superintendent of Public Instruction shall, annually, while he continues to teach, present his certificate to the county superintendent for registration.

Sec. 5. Certificates granted by the county superintendent and the requirements for the same shall be as follows:

First.—A third grade elementary school certificate, valid for one year in the elementary schools of the county in which it is issued, renewable once on evidence satisfactory to the county superintendent of not less than three months' successful teaching, and a second time if, in the period following the date of issuing the certificate, the holder shall have had twelve weeks' professional training in any recognized school providing such training. Applicants for such certificates shall be required to pass an examination in such subjects of the elementary school curriculum as may be prescribed by the State Board of Education. The issuing of this form of certificate may be discontinued at the option of the State Board of Education.

Second.—A second grade elementary school certificate, valid for two years. This certificate shall be renewable on evidence satisfactory to the county superintendent of six months' successful teaching, and a second time if in the period following the date of issuing the certificate to the holder shall have acquired twenty-four weeks' professional training in any recognized school providing such training: *Provided, however*, that if acquired in exchange, under the provisions of this Act, such certificate shall be renewable indefinitely for periods of two years.

The requirements for this form of certificate shall be graduation from a recognized high school, or the completion of an equivalent preparation, and a successful examination in English, the methods of teaching, and such other subjects of the elementary school curriculum as may be prescribed by

the State Board of Education: *Provided, however*, that this certificate may be issued without examination to graduates of recognized normal schools or of institutions offering an equivalent preparation.

Third—A first grade elementary school certificate, valid for three years, renewable indefinitely for periods of three years.

The requirements for this form of certificate shall be graduation from a recognized high school, or an equivalent preparation, and four years' teaching certified as successful by the county superintendent of each county in which the applicant has taught and an examination in English, the principles and methods of teaching and three other subjects to be selected by the applicant from a list of subjects prepared by the State Board of Education; or, in lieu of the foregoing requirements, graduation from a recognized normal school, or from an institution offering an equivalent preparation, evidence satisfactory to the county superintendent of at least two years' successful teaching, and an examination in English and the principles and methods of teaching.

Fourth—A limited high school certificate, valid for one year, and renewable for a period of two years.

The requirements for this form of certificate shall be graduation from a recognized high school, or an equivalent preparation, and a certificate showing at least one year's successful work in a recognized higher institution of learning, a successful examination in English, the principles and methods of teaching, and three high school subjects, one major and two minors, chosen from a list prepared by the State Board of Education. The issuing of this form of certificate shall be discontinued at the option of the State Board of Education.

Fifth—A high school certificate, valid for three years, renewable indefinitely for periods of three years.

The requirements for this form of certificate shall be graduation from a recognized high school, or an equivalent preparation, and a certificate showing the completion of at least two years' successful work in any higher institution of learning; an examination in English, the principles and methods of teaching and three other subjects, one major and two minors, chosen from a list prepared by the State Board of Education: *Provided, however*, that this certificate may be issued to graduates of a recognized college or university, or any institution offering an equivalent preparation, who shall have had one year of successful teaching.

Sixth—A kindergarten certificate, valid for two years in any kindergarten of the State, and valid also in the first grade of the elementary schools, providing the kindergarten training school of which the applicant is a graduate gives adequate preparation for first grade work; renewable for three-year periods.

The requirements for this form of certificate shall be graduation from a recognized high school and from a recognized kindergarten training school, or the completion of an equivalent course; or, in lieu of graduation from such training school, such examination in English and the theory and practice of kindergarten work as may be prescribed by the State Board of Education.

Seventh—A special certificate, valid for two years, in the elementary or high schools of the county in which it is issued, renewable for three-year periods. Such certificate shall be issued only in music, drawing, manual training, domestic art, physical training and such other subjects as may be added by the State Board of Education, and shall authorize the holder to teach only the subject or subjects named in the certificate.

The requirements for this form of certificate shall be graduation from a recognized high school, or an equivalent preparation, and a certificate showing the completion in a recognized higher institution of learning of at least two years' special training in the subject or subjects the candidate desires to teach; or, in lieu of such training, satisfactory evidence of four years' successful teaching of such subject or subjects; a successful examination in English and the principles and methods of teaching.

Sec. 6. Examinations for county certificates shall be held at the various county seats on the same day, under such rules as may be prescribed by the State Board of Education, and questions for each examination shall be uniform throughout the State. Such questions shall be forwarded to the county superintendents under seal, to be broken only at the time of opening the examination and in the presence of the applicants. The county superintendent shall conduct the examination in his county, and at the close of the examination the papers of each applicant shall be forwarded to the State Board of Education, each paper being designated in such a manner as to conceal the identity of the writer, as prescribed by the State Board of Education. Such papers, when graded, shall be returned to the county superintendents from whom they were received, each of whom shall issue a certificate of the kind designated by the State Board of Education to each person in his county who shall have passed the examination, if, in his judgment, the personality of such applicant and his general qualifications, other than scholarship, fit him for the work of teaching.

Sec. 7. A county certificate, except a third grade elementary school certificate and a second grade high school certificate, shall be valid in the county in which it is issued, and in any other county of the State, when endorsed by the county superintendent of such other county. A certificate shall be renewable only at its expiration, and no certificate shall be renewed except at the option of the superintendent issuing or endorsing it and on evidence satisfactory to such superintendent for successful teaching and professional progress. In determining such progress the superintendent shall take into consideration, and give credit for, professional reading done under his direction, attendance upon any recognized institution of learning, and upon institutes and teachers' meetings, and for active participation in the same.

Sec. 8. An applicant for a certificate who has not completed a high school course shall be admitted to an examination, set by the State Board of Education, on subjects announced in advance, for the purpose of determining whether such applicant possesses an equivalent preparation.

Sec. 9. Any person who holds, at the time this Act goes into effect, a valid county certificate to teach, may, with the approval of the county superintendent, exchange the same for a certificate of equal grade—a second grade for a second grade elementary, or a second grade high school certificate; a first grade for a first grade elementary or a first grade high school certificate; a special certificate for a special certificate; a kindergarten certificate for a kindergarten certificate; or, in case the holder of a first grade certificate shall have had three years of successful work as a supervisor of schools, he may, with the approval of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, exchange such certificate for a five-year supervisory certificate.

Sec. 10. In the examination of teachers for certificates higher than those which they shall have received in exchange for certificates in force when this Act goes into effect, and in the renewal of their certificates, successful experience in teaching shall be accepted as an equivalent for high school and professional training.

Sec. 11. No fee shall be charged for the examination of an applicant for any certificate issued under this Act, or for the renewal of the same.

Sec. 12. Any person who shall sell, trade, barter or give away, or offer, to sell, trade, barter or give away, to applicants for teachers' certificates, or to any other person; or any person who shall buy, purchase, bargain or trade for, or accept, any of the questions prepared by the State Board of Education to be used in the examination of teachers, or in any way dispose of or accept any of such questions, in violation of the rules prescribed by the State Board of Education; or any person who shall reveal or give information which shall reveal the identity of any writer of an examination paper, shall, on conviction, be fined not less than \$25 nor more than \$100.

Sec. 13. By the word "recognized," as used in this Act in connection with the word "school," "college," or "university," is meant such school, college

or university as maintains an equipment, course of study, and standard of scholarship approved by the State Board of Education. The rules of such board shall also be final in the matter of determining the meaning of the words "high school" and "equivalent preparation," as used in this Act, and of other words and phrases in this Act which have no recognized legal definition.

Sec. 14. Any certificate issued under this Act may be suspended or revoked by the superintendent issuing or endorsing it, upon evidence of immorality, incompetency, unprofessional conduct or other just cause.

Sec. 15. All Acts or parts of Acts in conflict herewith are hereby repealed.

Sec. 16. This Act shall take effect and be in force on and after January 1, 1911.

REFERENCES.

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 States Relating to Teachers' Examinations and Certificates, 1897-1898:1659.
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COUNTY TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

The practice of holding institutes for the improvement of teachers in the science and art of teaching is general in the United States. As a rule provision is made for the organization and support of county institutes in the school law of the state, the school authorities of the state or county being required to organize and conduct them. In a few of the states they are optional with the county or state superintendent, and in Massachusetts and Connecticut they depend upon the voluntary initiative of the teachers themselves. In the state of Ohio the commissioner of common schools may arrange for an institute if the holding of one is neglected by the teachers for the space of two years.

In forty-one states and the two territories county (or district) teachers' institutes are held. The five other states, namely Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Tennessee hold institutes or teachers' conventions, and associations but do not provide for county institutes specifically. In Connecticut, for instance, there is no law on the subject, but teachers' meetings are held at various times and places. In the year ending September 1, 1904, ninety-five teachers' meetings were held in that state with an average attendance of one hundred and sixty-six. In Maine teachers' conventions are held in each county at least annually. In Massachusetts teachers' associations are voluntary. In 1907 twenty regular institutes were held in that state in which one hundred and eighty-three towns were represented. In Rhode Island institutes are held under the direction of the commissioner of public schools, the state appropriating a sum not to exceed five hundred dollars annually to defray the necessary expenses and charges for teachers and lectures. In Tennessee teachers' meetings are held at the option of the superintendent of public instruction. It will be observed, then, that even in those states which do not provide specifically for them the value of county institutes is distinctly recognized and voluntary arrangements are made for holding them.

THE NUMBER OF COUNTY INSTITUTES HELD ANNUALLY.

In those states in which the law provides for county institutes the requirement, as a rule, is that at least one institute be held annually in each county. Alabama, Minnesota, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Ohio, Vermont, West Virginia and Wisconsin are exceptions to this

rule. In Alabama three institutes must be held, in each county every year. In Minnesota and North Dakota the number is determined by the state superintendent. In New Hampshire the requirement is one or more, and the same is true of West Virginia and Wisconsin. In North Carolina institutes are held biennially. In Ohio there is no legal requirement as to the number of institutes that are to be held. In Vermont the number may be one or two.

THE TIME AT WHICH COUNTY INSTITUTES ARE HELD.

In only eight of the states is the time of holding county institutes fixed by law. Of these Alabama requires one of its three annual institutes to be held in September. In Arkansas institutes must be held in June; in Georgia and Nebraska in June, July, or August; in Kentucky from July to November; in South Dakota, from April 1st to September 1st; in West Virginia, from the third week in July to the last week in October. Texas provides that institutes must be held within the first four months of the school year. The school year in that state begins September 1st. The practice there is just the opposite of that followed in Illinois and Utah, both of which states require the county institute to be held at a time when the schools are generally closed. In nearly all of the remaining states the time of holding institutes is determined either by the state board of education, the state superintendent, or the county superintendent. In perhaps a dozen cases the matter is left wholly with the county superintendent of schools. In Louisiana the time is determined by the state board of education; in North Carolina by the county board of education, and in Colorado by an executive committee which acts with the advice and consent of the superintendent of public instruction and the president of the state normal school. In a majority of the states in which the time of holding the institute is optional they are held in the summer when schools are not in session. Montana, however, provides by law that no institute shall be held between the first day of June and the first day of September, and Texas, as already noted, requires them to be held "within the first four months of the scholastic year." These two states thus indicate a definite purpose to make the institute a part of the school work of the year. This is a practice that receives the recommendation of those who have given most thought to this phase of the subject.

THE LENGTH OF INSTITUTES.

In about half the number of the states the length of the regular county institute is one week or less. The expression "regular county institute" is here used to distinguish the institute from the summer normal schools which are held in several of the states. Separate provisions for such schools are made in the school laws of Louisiana, Minnesota, South Dakota and Texas. In Colorado and New Mexico the institute must continue two weeks and in Kansas not less than four weeks. In other states the length of time during which the institute is held, when not provided by law, is determined by the state superintendent or

the state board of education. In Louisiana the matter is entirely in the hands of the state board. In Michigan, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York and North Dakota it is determined by the state superintendent or the state commissioner as the case may be. In eighteen states the provision of the law is practically for a week's institute.

METHODS OF SECURING INSTRUCTION.

In those states in which the institute is wholly under the control of state authority, instruction is secured, of course, by the state superintendent, the state commissioner or the state board of education. In twenty-one states the kind of instruction and the list of instructors are practically determined by the state educational authority. The state either employs the instructors outright or limits the selection of the county superintendents to a list of instructors prepared by the state. In Colorado, Kansas, New Mexico, Oklahoma and Wisconsin the law provides that institute instructors must have a special certificate granted by state authority. In Louisiana the state superintendent of public instruction and the president of the state normal school constitute a board of state institute managers. This board may select "an experienced institute conductor who shall have general charge of the summer normal work." In nine states arrangements for instruction are made by the county superintendent. In Illinois and Iowa instructors are secured by the county superintendent with the concurrence of the state superintendent.

Some of the states provide specifically that institute instruction must be given by one or more members of the faculty or faculties of the normal schools. In Wisconsin, for instance, one of the conductors must be connected with one of the state normal schools. In Maryland the institute must be attended "by one or more instructors of a state normal school or a normal department faculty, to be selected by the state superintendent and the principal of the school."* So also the law of New Hampshire provides that "the principal and teachers of the state normal school shall assist and give instruction at teachers' institutes, so far as they can without interfering with their duties in the normal school, but they shall receive no additional compensation, except for traveling and other additional and necessary expenses while so employed."† In Utah also the governing board is authorized to call upon the state normal schools to furnish expert institute instructors for work in institutes.

As a rule instruction may be secured for an institute outside the county or the state, and the practice of securing persons for special lectures is almost general. Arkansas is the exception to the rule. The law of that state provides "That all the time of the said institutes shall be devoted to class work in the branches of reading, writing, arithmetic, orthography, grammar, history of the United States and the State of Arkansas, theory and practice and physiology."§ While

*Public School Law, Maryland, section 82.

†Laws of New Hampshire relating to public schools, chapter VIII, p. 48.

§Digest of laws relating to free schools in the State of Arkansas, section 2, p. 29.

the practice of holding examinations immediately after the institute is followed by several of the states, Kansas is the only state which requires it by law.

ATTENDANCE.

In more than half of the states teachers are required by law to attend the county institute. In some of the states attendance is not compulsory, but a special inducement for attendance is held out by the offer of a per diem compensation or by granting special opportunities for securing positions in the schools. In Indiana, for instance, teachers who attend the institute have two per cent added to their general average in examinations, and this increases their wages since the wages are based upon the average percentage received in examination. In Ohio teachers are paid for attendance at the rate of two dollars a day for not less than four nor more than six days if the institute is held within the vacation period. In some of the states, as in South Dakota, certain persons are excused from attending the institute. These are, as a rule, the holders of the higher certificates. In South Dakota, those holding first grade certificates, state certificates, or life certificates are excused. Oftentimes attendance upon another institute or upon a summer school approved by the county superintendent holding the institute is accepted in lieu of attendance.

COMPENSATION FOR ATTENDANCE.

It is almost the general practice, when the institute is held within the period for which teachers are employed, to allow the same wages while attending the county institute as teachers receive for their regular work. Minnesota is apparently an exception, for the law of that state provides that "any teacher may close his school for the purpose of attending any institute appointed for his county, and he shall be allowed to make up the time so lost upon presenting to the clerk of the district a certificate, signed by the county superintendent, attesting said teacher's attendance at the institute."* In West Virginia teachers are allowed \$1.50 per day for each day of attendance. A few of the states authorize pay for attendance, even when the institute is held in the vacation period. Indiana and Ohio are examples. The method of payment in these states has already been referred to.

METHODS OF SUPPORTING COUNTY INSTITUTES.

The county institutes of the different states are supported either by a state appropriation, by a county appropriation, by certification and registration fees, by voluntary assessment of the teachers, or by a combination of two or more of these methods. In twelve states institutes are wholly supported by state appropriations. The largest state appropriation for this purpose is made by New York which paid for teachers' institutes in the year ending September 30, 1906, \$47,712.13.

*Laws of Minnesota relating to schools and education, section 262, p. 110.

In seven states, institutes are supported wholly by county appropriations, in nine, wholly by fees, in three, by state and county appropriations, in two, by state appropriations and fees, in six, by county appropriations and fees, and in five, by state and county appropriations and fees. Fees are collected for the support of institutes in twenty-two states. In Ohio, Indiana and Maine, and perhaps in other states, the teachers themselves assist in the support of institutes by voluntary contributions. The prevailing methods of support are by state appropriations, by county appropriations and by fees.

It should not be forgotten that in addition to the support of institutes certain of the states appropriate large sums for conducting summer normal schools. Minnesota, for instance, makes a state appropriation of only three thousand dollars for institutes, but appropriates thirty thousand dollars for summer normal schools. The law of New York provides "for the instruction of competent persons in academies and union schools, in the science and practice of common school teaching, under a course to be prescribed by the superintendent of public instruction." For this purpose teachers' training classes are established for which in 1906 the state of New York expended \$119,517.50.*

The principle facts concerning the institutes of the various states may be more graphically shown in the following table:

*Third Annual Report of the Educational Department, New York, page 163

TABLE 1.

Showing how many annually, when and for how long a time County or District Institutes must be held in the various States, how instruction is secured, whether attendance is compulsory, whether teachers are allowed pay for attendance, and how Institutes are supported.

State.	No.	Date.	Length.	Instruction secured by—	Attendance.	Wages.	Support.
Alabama.....	3	One in September	Usually 2 days.....	County board of education.....	Compulsory as to one.....	Not allowed.....	State and county. No fees without consent of teacher.....
Arizona.....	1	3 to 5 days.....	Compulsory.....	Allowed.....	By fees and 5 per cent of territorial school fund apportioned to county.
Arkansas.....	1	June.....	5 days.....	Time devoted to class work.....do.....	do.....	Partly by certificate fees.
California.....	1	Fixed by county superintendent.	3 to 5 days.....	County superintendent.....do.....	do.....	By county and by fees. In cities \$200 appropriated from special school funds of city. County superintendent may expend \$300 to \$400, or in joint institute \$200....
Colorado.....	1	Determined by committee.....	2 weeks.....	Instructors certificated by State Board of Education.....do.....	Board may permit 5 per cent credit in examinations.....	\$50 from State. \$2 county appropriation for each enrollment and \$1 registration fee.....
Delaware.....	1	Determined by county superintendent.....	5 days.....	County superintendent.....do.....	Allowed.....	\$130 from state.....
*Florida.....	1	State superintendent.....	Not compulsory.....	Not allowed.....	By examination fees.....

*In Florida county and district institutes are optional. Arrangements are made and instructors secured by the State superintendent. In many counties the time lost from school by teachers in attending institutes is paid from the county funds, and in some instances teachers are refused pay for services for teaching during the convening of an institute when they should be in attendance.

Table I—Continued.

State.	No.	Date.	Length.	Instruction secured by—	Attendance.	Wages.	Support.
Georgia.....	1	June, July, August.....	1 week.....	County school commissioner and county board.....	Compulsory.....	Optional with board.....	\$25 from county.....
Idaho.....	1	Determined by county superintendent.....	5 to 15 days.....	County superintendent.....	Compulsory.....	Allowed.....	By county.....
Illinois.....	1	When schools are generally closed.....	Not less than 5 days.....	County superintendent with concurrence of State superintendent.....	Not compulsory.....	Not allowed unless institute occurs in term time.....	By certificate and registration fees.....
Indiana.....	1	In summer, not fixed by law.....	5 days.....	County superintendent.....	do.....	2 per cent credit on general average in examinations.....	\$100 from county and by voluntary fees.....
Iowa.....	1	In spring and summer.....	Not less than 6 days.....	County superintendent with approval of state superintendent.....	do.....	Not allowed except in term time.....	By certificate and registration fees, and by state and county appropriations.....
Kansas.....	1	Determined by county superintendent.....	Not less than 4 weeks.....	Instructors must have certificate from State Board of Education.....	do.....	do.....	\$50 from state. By county not to exceed \$100. By certificate and registration fees.....
Kentucky.....	1	July to November.....	5 to 10 days.....	Program prepared by state superintendent and board of education.....	Compulsory.....	do.....	By registration fees.....
Louisiana.....	1	Determined by state board.....	1 to 6 weeks.....	Board of state institute managers.....	do.....	Not allowed.....	By institute fund derived from fees and state appropriation.....
Maryland.....	1	Fixed by state superintendent.....	5 to 10 days.....	State superintendent and by county superintendent.....	do.....	Allowed.....	By county.....

Michigan	1	Determined by superintendent of public instruction	Determined by superintendent of public instruction	Superintendent of public instruction	Not compulsory	Allowed	By county and by fees
*Minnesota	Va- ries.	Determined by state superintendent	1 week	State superintendent	Not compulsory	Teachers may make up time lost in attendance	By state appropriation, \$3,000 annually, and by county
Mississippi	1	Not less than 5 days	3 days	County board of education	do	Not allowed	By county and fees
†Missouri			3 days	County commissioner	Compulsory	Allowed	By fees
Montana	1	September to January	3 to 10 days	State superintendent	do	do	By state and county, and by examination fees
Nebraska	1	June, July, or August	At least 1 week	County superintendent	do	Not allowed	\$25-\$100 by county. By certificate and registration fees
†New Hampshire	1 or more				Not compulsory	Not allowed except in term time	Institute fund consisting of proceeds of sale of state lands
§New Jersey					Compulsory	Allowed	By state

* Minnesota appropriates \$30,000 annually for the support of teachers' training schools. From thirty to forty of these schools are held annually at a time determined by the state superintendent and continuing four to six weeks. Instruction is secured by the state superintendent. Teachers are not compelled to attend. Such training schools are also held in North Dakota. Two or more counties may unite in holding such school. Attendance is not compulsory beyond one week. These schools are supported in the same manner as institutes with the exception that counties must appropriate two dollars per school or separate department, out of the general fund.

† In Missouri the county commissioner may organize a county teachers' association for a three days meeting on the last three days of some week in September, October, November or December of each year. The school week is shortened to three days for teachers who attend and full wages for the week are paid. Expenses are paid from thirty per cent of the fees for certificates.

‡ In New Hampshire the time and length of the institute is determined by the superintendent of public instruction.

§ In New Jersey and North Dakota the number of the institutes as well as their time and length are determined by the superintendent of public instruction.

Table I—Continued.

State.	No.	Date.	Length.	Instruction secured by—	Attendance.	Wages.	Support.
New Mexico	1	Determined by county superintendent	Not less than 2 weeks	County superintendent with approval of territorial superintendent. Instructors must hold certificate from territorial board of education	Compulsory except for teachers in cities under direct supervision and for holders of N. M. professional life certificates	Not allowed	By county and by registration fees
*New York	1	1 week	State commissioner ..	Compulsory	Allowed	State appropriates about \$50,000 annually
North Carolina ..	Biennial.	Fixed by county board of education	Determined by available fund ..	County board with approval of state superintendent	Compulsory for two weeks	Not allowed	County appropriates \$200-\$250
†North Dakota	Superintendent of public instruction ..	Compulsory	Allowed	By state and by examination fees
‡Ohio	Determined by State Commissioner of Schools ..	Not less than four days	County executive committee	Not compulsory	Allowed	By examination fees

Oklahoma	1	Determined by county superintendent—usually June, July or August.....	2 to 4 weeks	County superintendent. Instructors must have certificate from State Board of Education.	Not compulsory	Not allowed except in term time.....	By examination and registration fees.....
Oregon	1	Determined by county superintendent.....	Not less than 8 days	County superintendent.....	Compulsory.....	Allowed for three days if institute is held in term time...	By examination fees.....
§ Pennsylvania ..	1	August to January	At least 5 days....	County superintendent or some one selected by him.....	Not compulsory	Allowed	By county appropriation of \$80.00 to \$200.00 and by enrollment fees.....
South Dakota ...	1	April 1 to September 15th	Not less than 5 days	Conductor secured by county superintendent from list sent by superintendent of public instruction. Instructors secured by county superintendent	Compulsory except for holders of first grade or life certificate	Not allowed.....	Ten cents per capita upon school census of county
Texas	1	In first 4 months of each year	5 days	County superintendent.....	Compulsory.....	Allowed	No provision made in the laws. Institutes are supported locally

* Institutes in New York are held from about the first of September to the first of February and from the first of March to the middle of June. Schools are closed while the institute is in session in a particular district except in cities and villages of over 5,000 population in which there are superintendents of schools. The programs for teachers' institutes are prepared by the state department and the instruction is given by a regular corps of institute conductors and instructors who are employed by the state and paid from the state treasury.

† In North Dakota, the number of the institutes as well as the time and length, are determined by the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Teachers' Institutes may be organized in any county upon association of not less than thirty teachers. When an institute has not been held within two years in any county the commissioner of common schools may hold one or cause it to be held. Teachers are allowed \$2.00 a day for not less than four nor more than six days when the institute is in the vacation period.

‡ Cities, boroughs and townships having fifty or more teachers and superintendents of their own may also have institutes under conditions similar to those of county institutes.

Table I—Concluded.

State.	No.	Date.	Length.	Instruction secured by—	Attendance.	Wages.	Support.
Utah	1	When schools are closed.	2 to 10 days.	State superintendent, county superintendent and principal of State Normal schools.	Compulsory	Allowed if schools are closed to attend	By county school fund.
Vermont	1-2	Determined by State Superintendent	Not more than 4 days	State superintendent.	Not compulsory	Allowed	Not to exceed \$30.00 per day paid by State at- tendant and al- lowed him in settle- ment of his account.
Washington	1	Not stated	Not less than 5 days	County superintendent.	Compulsory	Allowed	By examination fees
West Virginia	1 or more	Between 3d week in July and last week in October	5 days	State superintendent.	do	\$1.50 per day	State appropriates a sum not to exceed \$100.00 for payment of instructors.
Wisconsin	1 or more in each county.	Usually in July or August	Usually 1 or 2 weeks	Instructors must hold certificates from State superintendent.	Not compulsory	Not allowed except in term time	State appropriates \$23,000 of which \$9,000 is expended under direction of county superintendent, balance under direction of institute committee of board of regents of normal school.

Wyoming	1	Determined by county superin- tendent	4 to 5 days	County superintend- ent	Compulsory	Allowed	\$100.00 appropriated an- nually by county
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† The law of Utah provides that institute meetings held once or twice a month each year shall be equivalent to the annual institute.
§ In Washington, cities employing one hundred or more teachers, may hold separate institutes. The work of all institutes must be in conformity with a syllabus prepared by the superintendent of public instruction and the committee of three county superintendents appointed by him for at least one-half of the program, the remaining part to be supplied by the county superintendent.

Some of the states are not included in the table. They are omitted for the reason that provisions for the county institute are either not made or are not specific enough to furnish the necessary items. The institute systems in these states are as follows:

Connecticut has no law on the subject of institutes. Teachers' meetings are held at various times and places.

In Maine conventions are held once a year under the supervision of the state superintendent and are managed through local organizations approved by him. Not more than two associations may be formed in any county and each association limits its number of meetings to two annually. The usual practice is to hold only one. The program of the convention is made up in part by speakers within the county who give their services and of speakers from without the county selected by the state superintendent. The attendance of teachers is not compulsory but they may draw pay for two days in each year for the county convention and for the same time in each year for the state convention unless a specific vote to the contrary is passed by the local school committee. The state defrays the expenses of advertising the convention and the traveling expenses of speakers coming from outside the county. It also makes an annual appropriation for defraying that part of the expenses authorized to be paid by the state superintendent. Members of conventions usually assess themselves an annual fee for additional features arranged by the local school officials.

In Massachusetts teachers' associations are voluntary, time and place being determined by the county teachers' associations of which there are thirteen. The state may apply not more than \$350 to an association's expenses. Each county association may receive \$50 from the Commonwealth.

In Nevada the state superintendent conducts a state institute biennially and convenes five district teachers' institutes. No institute shall continue less than four nor more than ten days. Expenses are paid out of the state general fund. Teachers are required to attend without loss of salary. He may call a county teachers' institute with the approval of the board of county commissioners, the expense of which is paid out of the county general fund.

In Rhode Island institutes are held under the direction of the commissioner of public schools. There is no regular time of holding them. The attendance of teachers is not governed by any law. One city pays the membership fees of its teachers in the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction and requires their attendance at the annual meeting of that body. Not to exceed \$500 is appropriated by the state for defraying expenses for teachers and lectures. The State Board of Education pays annually a sum not to exceed \$300 for the purpose of providing lecturers and also for publishing and distributing educational publications.

In South Carolina the county superintendent is required to "encourage the formation of associations for teachers for common improvement and conduct teachers' institutes." Institutes are held usually for two weeks during the summer and autumn. Sometimes several counties unite and hold an institute for a month. Attendance is encouraged

by offering the renewal of certificates without examination. The interest on the permanent school fund is devoted to paying the salaries of instructors for such time as is decided upon by the State Board of Education. The trustees of each school district may bear the expenses of their teachers if they see fit to do so.

In Virginia one institute shall be held during each school year. Instruction is secured by division superintendents under the direction of the superintendent of public instruction.

TYPICAL SYSTEMS OF ORGANIZING AND CONDUCTING INSTITUTES.

A glance at the foregoing table will reveal the fact that in the different states the word institute is not always applied to exactly the same kind of teachers' meeting. In some of the states the institute is merely a convention or association of teachers organized for the purpose of discussing questions of interest to teachers and governed by parliamentary rules. In other states the word institute is used to denote a short summer school for teachers, in which the instruction is chiefly academic, and the principal purpose is to prepare teachers for an examination. In a majority of the states, however, the word implies an assembly of teachers for the purpose of receiving instruction not merely in subject matter, but also, and more particularly, in the philosophy of education and the practical methods of teaching. In these states the institute is, or is becoming, a teachers' meeting in which the aim is professional. Of this kind of institute there are three principal types. They are, first, the institute which is wholly under the control of state authority—the superintendent of public instruction, commissioner of education, or board of education, as the case may be; second, the institute which is organized and conducted wholly by the county educational officer, and third, the institute which is held by the county superintendent, in which the necessary arrangements are subject to the approval or concurrence of the state superintendent.

THE NEW YORK PLAN.

New York furnishes, perhaps, the best example of institutes of the first type. In that state all institutes are held under the direction and control of the state commissioner of education. As has already been pointed out, the state appropriates \$50,000 annually for this purpose, or so much of this sum as may be necessary. One institute is held annually and within the school year in each of the school commissioners' districts. It continues for one week. Throughout the district in which it is held the schools must be closed during its session, and the teachers are paid by the district their regular salaries for the time spent in attending. Cities and villages employing superintendents are exempt from the law closing the schools during the institute week, but many villages take advantage of the institute and close their schools. Cities hold separate institutes for their teachers, but employ the regular state institute conductors and assistants. The program for the institute is arranged by the state education department which prepares a syllabus giving general suggestions and directions for organizing and conducting

institutes and which specifies and outlines the subjects in which instruction is to be given. The program provides for both general and special work. General work occupies the periods of Monday afternoon, Friday morning and the first period of each morning. The Monday afternoon period is devoted to the organization of the institute; the last period on Friday morning to a summing up of the work of the institute and other work incidental to the closing of the institute. During the morning period for general work, lectures are given upon subjects of general and pedagogical value and upon other subjects informational or inspirational in character.

The institute is organized into the following sections: Rural schools, graded schools, and high schools. The basis of organization is the actual grade of work in which the teachers are engaged. Teachers are required to attend the exercises of the particular section to which they belong. The nature of the work is indicated by the following which is taken from a recent syllabus issued by the State Education Department. "Teaching demands knowledge of the subject matter, knowledge of the method of teaching the subject, and the ability to apply this knowledge to the teaching processes. Teachers do not know subject-matter fully and accurately, their methods are frequently unpedagogical and not systematic, and they have little or no conception of the teaching processes. The problems of the method they are not liable to solve for the reason that they do not understand the problems. They can not analyze the problem—when and how to instruct, when and how to drill, when and how to test. There is a necessity, then, for three kinds of work in the institute: (a) to instruct in subject matter, (b) to instruct in the best methods of teaching this subject-matter, (c) to secure, so far as possible, such practice on the part of the teachers as shall lead them to understand and to practice right methods and right possesses in teaching this subject-matter. The institute conductor, or instructor, must remember in giving instruction in subject-matter that the *end in view is the method*, and in giving the instruction his methods will not only serve as a model to the teachers, but will be used by him to illustrate the instruction given in methods. Instead of set talks of forty-five minutes, or more, on various subjects, the work in the institute will be based upon the outlines given in this syllabus. Not less than three periods will be spent on each sub-topic, the work covering subject-matter when necessary, methods, and practice." All instruction for the institute is provided by the State Education Department. The state employs five regular institute conductors who are paid \$3,000 a year and their traveling expenses. When not employed in conducting institutes, their services are utilized in connection with the inspection of schools, preparation of examination questions and the review of answer papers resulting from such examinations. These men, so far as possible, conduct all the institutes. In the month of October there is such a demand for institutes that it is necessary to employ additional conductors. Such additional conductors are paid \$50 for the week and their traveling expenses. To assist the conductors there are two instructors in English and two in drawing. The principals and teachers of the state normal schools are also called upon to assist in the teachers' institutes.

For this plan, illustrated also by the institute systems of New Jersey, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Wisconsin, and in part by those of some other states, there is much to be said. It is systematic. It gives definiteness, uniformity, and continuity to institute work. It enables the state department to plan institute instruction for a series of years, and thus produces an intended cumulative effect upon the development and training of teachers. The institute may thus be made a powerful means in working out definite ideals with respect to the educational interests of the State. With a uniform outline of instruction and a corps of professional institute conductors and instructors who may be depended upon from year to year, there need be little unnecessary duplication or waste of effort. There is an obvious advantage in having a body of institute instructors who devote almost their entire time to institute work and who prepare themselves specially for it. They come to know the teachers personally, and in time are familiar with the educational needs of each district. They consequently have an advantage which is impossible to those who are employed for a single institute. Moreover this method of providing instruction protects the teachers from that kind of popular lecturer who relies upon "striking the popular chord of approval" by appeals to instinctive emotions and prejudice, rather than upon a succinct presentation of educational principles. Indeed there are not a few lecturers who, although entirely deficient in a knowledge of educational philosophy, are yet popular platform speakers on platitudinous subjects and who carry a side line of so-called educational lectures consisting for the most part of the baldest commonplace sentiments. It is certainly a decided advantage to the educational work of a state to keep such lecturers out of the institute. Above all, this plan of organizing and conducting institutes definitely recognizes the institute as an integral part of the educational system of the State. It indicates perception of the fact that the benefits of the institute accrue in large part to the State and that consequently the State should provide for its support.

On the other hand this plan is attended with all the dangers that accompany rigid system. Whenever the educational work of a state is highly systematized there is always the possibility, of course, that the educational machinery may fall into unworthy hands and be used for selfish purposes. In the matter of organizing and conducting institutes, however, the chief objection to state control is perhaps the possibility of favoritism in the employment of institute conductors and instructors. While the state plan tends to protect the teachers from educational charlatany it also protects the state instructors from the competition of other instructors in the state and out who may be more efficient. It thus may lead to a sort of intellectual inbreeding, very harmful to the interests of the schools. If a state instructor should be inefficient or unpopular it may take a long time to get rid of him. Again, the plan leaves little, so far as the organization of the institute is concerned, to the local officials or the teachers themselves. The work of the institute is, therefore, likely to become formal, mechanical and uninteresting.

Teachers, like their pupils, usually manifest more interest in doing things for themselves than in having things done for them. Lack of interest in an institute goes far to destroy the advantages of uniformity, definiteness and continuity.

THE PENNSYLVANIA PLAN.

Institutes of the second type are well illustrated by those of Pennsylvania. In Pennsylvania a county institute is held in each county annually. Cities and boroughs having not fewer than fifty teachers may have separate institutes. The time and place of the institute are determined by the county superintendent or a properly authorized committee of teachers acting with him. The institute must continue in session at least five days, including a half day for going and a half day for returning from the place of meeting. The course of instruction and the corps of instructors are entirely determined by the county superintendent. The only authority exercised by the state superintendent is the requirement of a report from the county superintendent, showing the names of the instructors and lecturers, the subjects upon which instruction was given, the degree of popular interest awakened, and other information which may be called for by the form prescribed by the superintendent of public instruction. The schools of the county must be closed during the session of the institute. Teachers are paid for attendance, their compensation being based upon the official report made to boards of directors by the county superintendent. The amount paid the teacher for attendance must not be less than his per diem pay for actual teaching, but shall not exceed two dollars per day for each days attendance. To support the institute the treasurer of the county is authorized to pay one dollar for every three days spent by each teacher of the county in attending the institute. The amount drawn from the county treasury shall in no case be more than two hundred dollars. It may, however, in any case be as much as sixty dollars.

It will be observed that the chief distinction between the New York plan and the Pennsylvania plan is in the form of control. In Pennsylvania the institute is organized and conducted by the county superintendent instead of the state department of education as in New York. In Pennsylvania the state contributes nothing to the support of county institutes. They are almost wholly supported by county appropriations, the contributions of teachers, and the proceeds of evening lecturers and entertainments. The amount thus provided is about seventy-five thousand dollars.

This county plan of organizing, conducting and supporting institutes, of which Pennsylvania offers perhaps the most successful example, is particularly favorable to the development of the teachers' interest in the success of the institute and the interest of the community in education. Teachers contribute to the support of the institute by the payment of admission fees to evening lectures and evening entertainments. This ought to increase their interest in the character and success of the institute and it is usually supposed that it does. The county superintendent knows that the failure of an institute is charged against him. He

is in competition as to the success of his institute with the other county superintendents of the state. There is every inducement, therefore, to effort in the direction of making his institute as successful as it can be made. He secures the best instructors which his means will permit. It is not unusual for county superintendents in Pennsylvania to pay as much as five hundred or six hundred dollars for instruction. Sometimes as much as eight hundred dollars is paid. There is variety of instruction, special musical features and oftentimes forms of entertainment. There is consequently great interest in the institute, not always of the professional kind it is true, but interest nevertheless. There is no difficulty, therefore, in regard to the attendance of teachers. It is always large, oftentimes a hundred per cent of the teachers of the county. Great public interest is also aroused. Sometimes the attendance is beyond the capacity of the largest halls available. A thousand or fifteen hundred visitors is not at all unusual. In the total attendance of the institutes of the state the number of visitors far exceeds the number of teachers. In the institutes of the state there will be, for instance, about twenty-three thousand teachers, but the number of visitors will be about thirty-five thousand. It is clear, then, that the effect of the Pennsylvania institutes upon the educational thought of the state is far reaching. An expression frequently heard in connection with the institutes of that state is that they represent a sort of "educational revival." The appropriateness of this expression will be admitted by all who have seen the great institute audiences of some of the Pennsylvania counties.

The defects of the Pennsylvania plan are obvious enough. There is no state system, consequently no uniformity of educational purpose or method. The instruction of one institute may bear no relation to the instruction of the preceding institute. If a continuous line of work should be followed in the institutes of one county it might be altogether different from the work in other counties. The necessity of making the institute a success sometimes leads the county superintendent to make too large a concession of educational purposes to the desire of the teachers and the public for entertainment. Instructors are secured for their ability to entertain rather than for their ability to instruct. Income depends upon attendance. Consequently "attractions" are introduced which will draw the crowd. It happens, therefore, that the institute may be successful in arousing interest and yet may be of small professional value.

THE ILLINOIS PLAN.

For an illustration of institutes of the third type we may as well take those of Illinois. Other states, as for instance Iowa and South Dakota, furnish in some respect even better examples, but those of Illinois will serve our purpose. The school law of Illinois provides that "the county superintendent shall hold, annually, a teachers' institute, continuing in session not less than five days, for the instruction

of teachers and those who may desire to teach; and, with the concurrence of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, procure such assistance as may be necessary to conduct said institute at such times as the schools of the county are generally closed.”* In another place the language of the law is that the State Superintendent of Public Instruction shall be clothed with the power “to authorize the several county superintendents to procure such assistance as may be necessary to conduct county teachers’ institutes for not less than five days in each year.”† About nine-tenths of the institutes of the state are five-day institutes. The remainder are, as a rule, for two weeks. Now and then an institute continues for a month. Instruction in the institute is free to all those who hold certificates good in the county in which the institute is held. Others are required to pay a registration fee of one dollar, except those who have paid an examination fee and failed to receive a certificate. The law provides that “the time not exceeding three days in any one term, or five days in any one school year, during term time, actually spent by a teacher of any public school in this state in attendance upon a teachers’ institute, held under the direction of the county superintendent of schools, shall be considered time lawfully spent by such teacher in the service of the district where such teacher is employed, and no deduction of wages shall be made for such absences.”§ Institutes are usually held, however, in the summer months, hence teachers, as a rule, receive no wage for attending. The great bulk of the amount necessary to support the institutes of the state is derived from certificate and registration fees. In a few counties small sums are appropriated by the county board. But this is almost inconsiderable. In 1907 it amounted to \$236.15. In that year the total amount collected from all sources for the support of institutes was \$52,665.96. Almost the whole of this amount was collected from teachers.

The peculiarity which warrants reference to the Illinois system of conducting institutes as an example of the third type is the relationship which the state department of public instruction sustains to the county superintendent in the work of organizing and conducting his institute. This relation is something more than advisory. Instructors are secured by the county superintendents with the concurrence of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. The State, however, assumes no part of the financial expense of institutes. The recognition of the institute as an agency for promoting the educational work of the State is, therefore, only partial. The strength of the plan lies more in its possibilities than in actual achievement. The potential advantages of the plan will be considered later. We shall confine ourselves now to a brief outline of the history of institutes in Illinois as they have been conducted under this plan and prior to its adoption.

COUNTY INSTITUTES IN ILLINOIS.

The first institute in the State of Illinois was held in Chicago in 1846. It was not a county institute but was organized in connection

*School Law of Illinois, article VII, section 10.

†Ibid, article I, section 5.

§Ibid, article VII, section 11.

with a common school convention which met in Chicago. It began on Monday morning and continued until Saturday.* The first county institute was held a little later, either in Will county or in Lee county.†

The first reference to county institutes in the school report of the State is found in the report of 1851, made by David L. Gregg, Secretary of State and *ex officio* Superintendent of Common Schools. It reads as follows: "In several parts of the State much interest has lately been manifested in extending the qualifications of teachers. Among other means employed, 'institutes' have been formed in which a regular course of instruction on the subject of teaching is given. Such institutes, I regard as likely to exert the best influence upon the character of our common schools. Teachers, by meeting together periodically, are enabled to communicate to each other the result of their observation and experience, and, by a comparison of views, arrive at conclusions which are of general advantage. An interest is also excited which, by arousing the teacher to diligence and energy, leads to his success."‡

When Ninian W. Edwards, in 1854, presented his bill for the establishment and maintenance of a system of free schools he provided for county school conventions consisting of the directors of the boards of education of the several townships of each county and gave to these conventions the "power to organize in their respective counties teachers' institutes, for the instruction and improvement of teachers, and the promotion of the common schools of the county." These institutes were to be supported by an appropriation from the common school fund, apportioned to the respective counties. These provisions were rejected by the Legislature. In his report of 1855-56 he recommended that "either the county or State should appropriate a small amount towards defraying the expenses of teachers' institutes, in counties where one shall be held for not less than five days in each year."§ Nothing came of these recommendations. Consequently the teachers of the State, at the meeting of the State Association in 1857, appointed one of their number State agent for organizing and conducting institutes and contributed to his support. In 1858 this agent visited fifty-six counties and assisted in holding nineteen institutes. (a)

By that time it could be said that "teachers' institutes are becoming one of the most important means of advancing the common school interests known to the country. They serve for the time being nearly all the purposes of a well conducted normal school, and are equally beneficial to the teachers who attend them, and the interests of the cause of education in the locality in which they are held." (b) The Superintendent of Public Instruction in 1858 recommended the appointment

*Sixth Biennial Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, 1854-56, p. CLIII.

†Mr. Pillsbury, in his article on "Early Education in Illinois," in the report just cited, says that "In Will county, so far as appears, the first county institute was held"; but the Illinois Teacher, Vol. I, No. 10, November, 1855, page 37, speaks of Lee county as "the pioneer county" in the matter of holding institutes. According to that journal the third semi-annual session of the Lee county institute was held April 16, 1855.

‡Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools, Illinois, 1850-51, p. 13.

§Report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, 1855-56, p. 18.

¶Special Biennial Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, 1857-58, p. 21.

b Op. cit. p. 18.

of a deputy superintendent to "enable this department to extend its sphere of labor, so as to embrace the delivery of public lectures, and the holding of teachers' institutes. This course," said he, "is recommended instead of any direct appropriation for the support of teachers' institutes, or state agent, because it will subserve the two-fold purpose of a state agent, and at the same time render valuable and indispensable service to the department."* In 1861 a law was passed authorizing county courts and county boards of supervisors to aid in the support of institutes. Few authorities availed themselves of this permission. In 1865 but eleven institutes, and in 1866 only twenty-one, were thus supported. Meantime Superintendent Bateman had recommended that institutes "should be placed under the supervision of the Department of Public Instruction, and that a sufficient sum should be appropriated by the Legislature, to employ a suitable number of persons, who shall devote their whole time to the work."† This recommendation, also, was not acted upon. In 1863 the State Teachers' Association adopted the following resolution: "That to render professional instruction more universal, and to extend the influence of normal instruction as widely as possible, a system of institutes, under the general auspices of the State Normal University, should be held in each and every county in the State." The plan was to divide the State into three districts. The institutes in each district were to be conducted by a superintendent of institutes, assisted by members of the normal classes, which members were to be designated by the principal of the State Normal University and other competent persons. The times of holding institutes were to be decided upon by the faculty of the normal university and three superintendents of institutes, in coöperation with the county superintendents or school commissioners. The county commissioner, or such person as the institute might select, was to be the president of the institute of his county, to give notice of the same, and to provide the place for holding it. Teachers were to be permitted to close their schools during the session of the county institute, and if they were present at the session of the institute, their wages were to continue as though their schools remained in session. A committee of five was appointed to elaborate this plan, prepare a bill embodying it, and to introduce it into the Legislature. This plan was approved by State Superintendent Brooks. Nothing came of it, however.

In 1865 an amendment to the law provided that county superintendents should "encourage the formation and assist in the management of county teachers' institutes." There was an immediate increase in the number of institutes held. The number of counties in which institutes were held increased from thirty-two in 1865 to forty-two in 1866. In 1867 the General Assembly increased the compensation of county superintendents to \$5.00 a day for services actually rendered. This provision also affected immediately the number of institutes. In that year they were held in twenty-five additional counties and the

* Op. cit. p. 21.

† Third biennial report, Superintendent Public Instruction, Illinois, 1859-60, page 50.

number of institutes rose from fifty-six to 131. In his report for 1867-68 Superintendent Bateman recommended that teachers should be permitted by law to attend the county institute and that no deduction of pay or loss of time should be incurred by a teacher for the number of days during which such teacher was in actual and regular attendance in the institute. If the institute were held in term time leave of absence should not be granted more than once during any one period of six months, nor for more than one week at any one time. This became a law in 1869. It was repealed however in 1872. The law adopted that year merely provided that the county superintendent should "encourage the formation and assist in the management of county teachers' institutes."

In the same year Superintendent Bateman brought forward once more his recommendation that the State undertake to a limited extent the management and control of local institutes of instruction through the agency of competent and suitable persons appointed or commissioned in such a manner as may be prescribed by law, and who shall be directly responsible to the State for their acts, and be paid by the State for their services, upon such vouchers as are required of other agents and servants of the State. "It should be made the duty of these men," he said, "to organize and conduct a series of meetings or institutes for the instruction of teachers of common schools, and those desiring to become such, in the principles and methods of teaching; the organization, classification, discipline and government of schools; the requirements of the school law; the rights, powers and duties of school officers, teachers, pupils and citizens, and other subjects pertaining to the welfare and improvement of the public schools. It should also be made the duty of these men to instruct the people, by public addresses and otherwise, in respect to the nature and necessity of free schools; their vital relation to free government; the relations that should subsist between parents and teachers; the characteristics of good schools and teachers, and poor ones; how to obtain and retain one, and avoid the other; and the incomputable blessings of right elementary training on the one hand, and the irreparable mischief of ignorant teachers, irrational methods and mis-education on the other.

The sum of \$10,000.00 per annum would secure the services of four or five picked men for this work—men of ability and culture, thoroughly acquainted with systems of public education, and experienced in the supervision, management and instruction of common schools—men of prudence, good sense and sound judgment; able both to instruct and train teachers for the school rooms of the State, and to address public assemblies with force, dignity and effect. They would give their whole time to their work, so arranging their plan of operations as to bring the teachers and people of the whole State, or so much thereof as should be thought expedient, within the range of their influence and efforts, every year. Every institute conducted by them would be in the interest of sound elementary scholarship, scientific methods and principles and true education. These things are essential, and it is not possible to be sure of them in institutes having no intelligent supervision, and working

on no comprehensive plan, and toward no definite end. Lack of such responsible control and assured ability, of instruction and management, has been the main element of weakness and inefficiency, and the chief cause of occasional failure, in our present scheme of institute operations. It could hardly be otherwise. Without funds; without recognized leaders; without definite plans or the time to mature and execute them; with no comprehensive system of co-operation among the counties; with no countenance in the laws, and, in many instances, none from the people, but disfavor instead; with the chief school officer of the county oftentimes unable to take the lead and not seldom unwilling to do so—the teachers have done the best they could, and the marvel is that they have done so much and so well.

By the proposed plan, nearly all of those obstacles will be removed. Acting by the authority of the State, and not dependent upon the teachers or local communities for their compensation, these men would enter upon their work under the most favorable conditions. Selected for their skill and ability alone, and clothed with discretion to organize the work upon the scale of the whole State, with sole reference to the needs of the representative counties and to the accomplishment of the best results, they would soon be able to devise and put in operation a comprehensive and well matured plan of common school effort, and to prosecute the same with telling effect. In what other way can the district schools be so soon and so effectually supplied with qualified teachers, or with teachers of improved qualifications? How otherwise can the body of the people be so well instructed in regard to the claims of public education, the principles of teaching, the evils of mis-education, the elements and conditions of successful instruction, and the general economy of schools and school management? Is it seen in what other manner the comparatively trifling sum named could better be made to subserve the purposes for which the State, in compliance with the requirements of the Constitution, has established the system of free schools?*

This plan suggests the present plan of New York. It is quoted in full because for many years it was the accepted plan of those who thought to improve the institute work of the state. It was strongly endorsed by Superintendent Bateman's immediate successors, Mr. Etter and Mr. Slade. Mr. Etter, in his report for 1875 and 1876 said that the management of institutes and the methods of instruction "should to some extent be under the control and direction of the state superintendent of public instruction. He should have authority to employ a few of the most competent and thorough instructors in the professional training of teachers, and be permitted to send them to those counties where their work in the institutes and their addresses to the people are most needed."† He asked the General Assembly to appropriate the sum of five thousand dollars annually for this purpose, such amount to be at the disposal of the state superintendent. He also suggested the propriety of charging a small fee for each certificate issued, which fee was

* Ninth Biennial Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, 1871-72, pp. 69, 70, 71.

† Eleventh Biennial Report, Superintendent Public Instruction, Illinois, 1875-76, p. 377.

to be used by the county superintendent to defray the local expenses of the institute. A bill embodying this recommendation in regard to fees was introduced in the Thirty-second General Assembly and passed the Senate. It did not become a law, however, until 1883. Mr. Etter renewed his recommendation in 1879. Meantime the State Teachers' Association which met in 1878 had passed the following resolution: "This association heartily endorses the proposition to establish a system of teachers' institutes, to be conducted principally at the expense of the state by regularly appointed agents." Mr. Slade reprinted in his report of 1879-80 the Bateman plan in full and earnestly endorsed it.

In 1883 by an amendment to the school law it was provided that each applicant for a certificate or for the renewal of a certificate should pay to the county superintendent a fee of one dollar, and that the fees so collected should be used to defray the expenses of a teachers' institute to be held annually for not less than five days. It was also provided that the county superintendent might, with the concurrence of the state superintendent of public instruction, procure such assistance as may be necessary to conduct said institutes at such times as the schools of the county are generally closed and that two or more adjoining counties might hold an institute together. Finally in 1887 the following amendment to the school law was enacted: "The time not exceeding three days in any one term, or five days in one school year, during term time, actually spent by a teacher of any public school in this state in attendance upon a teachers' institute, held under the direction of the county superintendent of schools, shall be considered time lawfully spent by such teacher in the service of the district where such teacher is employed, and no deduction of wages shall be made for such absences. And it shall be the duty of the school officers and boards of education to allow teachers to close their schools for such attendance upon such institute."* This brings us to the completion of the institute plan now in operation.

Since 1887 no change has been made in the law regarding institutes. The subject has received consideration, however, not only by superintendents of public instruction in office since that time, but also by the teachers of the state. In 1893, at a meeting of the county superintendents' association a committee of three was appointed consisting of Henry Raab, Marvine Quakenbush and Allen B. Martin, to report a systematic plan for institute work. This committee sent to the county superintendents of the state and to "some successful institute instructors in this and adjoining states" a list of questions. From the answers received and from their own experience concerning the conduct of institutes they offered the following suggestions: "*First*—We regard the institute as a temporary expedient so long as better provision for the education of teachers is not made by the State. We are, however, on this account, not of the opinion that the institute should become a thing of the past when the state has established a number of normal schools sufficient to educate all that are to teach in the public schools. Hence, the institute should be a normal school which, for a short period of time,

* Illinois School Law, Article VII, Section 11.

attempts to give instruction in the several branches as well as in the principles and methods for imparting it, and in proper doctrines concerning school government, school hygiene and sanitation, the ethics and æsthetics of education. The work of the institute must, therefore, be comprehensive and rather calculated to start the student-teachers in the correct way of doing things, than that it can undertake to give extensive academic instruction or complete courses in psychology and pedagogics. It is, furthermore, evident that lengthy discussions of subjects can not be given, that frequently statements have to go without full argument, that the student-teachers have to do their own thinking to grasp the thought involved by the instructor, which has generally been accepted as truthful and correct.

On the whole, it may be said that the institute is what the county superintendent chooses to make it; first, by his own knowledge of the wants of the profession, and the energy he brings to the task; and, second, by the selection he makes of the instructors available for the work. In every institute there should be, at least, one instructor who towers far above the teachers enrolled so that the latter may look up to him as the beacon light. To employ local talent merely to keep the money raised in the county, is a wrong done the teachers who have a right to get the very best service from the institute. We are far from discountenancing the employment of competent men of the county in which the institute is held, provided they possess superior qualifications; for young men must be given an opportunity to develop in this kind of work.

That a mature plan for each county's institute may be the outcome, a consultation of county superintendents and instructors before the institute opens, seems unavoidable, and such face-to-face meeting is preferable to mere correspondence. We recommend most strenuously that the county superintendent call his instructors together and formulate a definite plan and program before the institute opens.

We deprecate the custom, sometimes resorted to, of making license to teach dependent on attendance at the institute; the work of the institute should be made so good and serviceable that teachers can not afford to stay away from it.

Second—In some counties, it may be necessary to hold schools of instruction in which the student-teachers may acquire a better knowledge of the different branches, but we wish to emphasize the statement that the institute proper shall not continue over a longer period than one, possibly two weeks. We believe in intensity of instruction rather than dilution. The interest, the enthusiasm, which should be aroused in the institute, can not be kept up throughout a longer session.

Third—The principal aims set forth in section one of this report should be constantly before the mind of the county superintendent; it should, however, be modified according to changed conditions and demands as they appear to the superintendent in his school visitation; c. g., the superintendent finds that a certain branch is poorly taught, may be totally neglected in the schools, or the sanitation of the house

and the premises are not what they ought to be, provision should be made to remedy these defects. Or, it may be found that a number of teachers excel in certain lines. An opportunity should be given to them to lay their methods before the body of the teachers.

Fourth—When the enrollment at an institute does not exceed 75 or 80, the institute need not necessarily be divided into sections, unless the actual conditions of the schools of the county demand such division, especially, when the great number of the schools of the county are ungraded. When the enrollment exceeds the above named number, a division into sections should be made on the line of scholarship, experience in teaching and former attendance on institutes, of which the superintendent is the judge. Work which is conducted on the lecture plan, and in which personal recitation by the student and personal supervision by the instructor are not essential, does not require a division into sections, and it may be attended to in general session. Under this head are included school government, school hygiene and sanitation, school economy, and lectures on ethics. We do not recommend that all branches taught in the schools should be taught regularly in the institute every year, but we do recommend that, besides the recitations in pedagogics, the presentation of every branch should be so conducted by the instructor as to carry along the principles and methods of teaching it. Less theory, more practice, should be our motto. The branches, however, which do need constant attention, are English and American literature in their best types, the mathematics, and good oral and written expression, purity of style, a care of the mother tongue. In addition to these, we should recommend drill in light gymnastics, vocal music and drawing. The natural sciences demand instruction from things rather than books; laboratory work and the examination of the natural object, in which the treatment of one animal, one plant, one experiment, may serve as a type for the many. In history, it is more important to give the manner of presentation and the method of study than the teaching of historical facts; these can be committed by the teacher without the help of the institute.

The question whether the teachers should do any studying of books during the institute is frequently asked. It is our opinion that the mental work of six or seven hours, especially during the time of year when the institute is generally held, does not admit of hard study. However, this does not exclude the looking up of authorities, of preparation for a recitation or of the writing of model work. Let the members of the institute bring with them all the freshness and enthusiasm every morning so that the session may be inspiring.

In conclusion, we wish to offer a suggestion on which experience, or rather non-experience, forbids us to make any recommendation, namely, the planning of several institutes in advance for a number of years, so that each succeeding year's work may be a continuation of the work of the preceding year. Under favorable circumstances and in counties where the body of teachers does not change very much in

the course of time, this planning of the work for several years in advance deserves notice, and should be tried by progressive county superintendents.”*

In 1893 and in 1894 a state institute for the licensed institute workers of the State was held. The expenses of these institutes were paid out of the contingent fund of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. The Superintendent of Public Instruction requested an appropriation for conducting what was called the State institute, but it was not granted.

This resume of the legislation in regard to institutes, together with references to various plans proposed in regard to conducting them, is made to indicate something of the attention which they have heretofore received. It will be interesting to notice the growth of institutes in the State from the beginning. The following table shows the increase in the number of counties holding institutes and in the number of institutes from year to year since 1857:

TABLE II.

Showing the number of Counties in which Institutes were held, the total number of Institutes in the State, and the total attendance for each year since 1857.

Year.	Counties.	Institutes.	Attendance.	Year.	Counties.	Institutes.	Attendance.
1857..	20	30	*	1883..	70	167	6,877
1858..	33	52	*	1884..	80	82	7,487
1859..	*	*	*	1885..	99	102	11,517
1860..	41	84	1,924	1886..	101	110	13,660
1861..	31	41	2,100	1887..	97	107	14,428
1862..	80	37	1,534	1888..	102	111	14,865
1863..	28	38	1,921	1889..	97	108	14,993
1864..	85	50	2,167	1890..	97	133	15,002
1865..	32	46	2,457	1891..	97	128	14,712
1866..	42	56	3,199	1892..	100	129	15,022
1867..	67	131	5,129	1893..	100	135	16,178
1868..	71	159	6,120	1894..	95	114	14,577
1869..	75	118	4,651	1895..	96	102	14,926
1870..	96	119	5,868	1896..	97	141	16,735
1871..	82	119	7,494	1897..	101	124	18,607
1872..	87	160	7,771	1898..	101	112	18,510
1873..	63	122	5,761	1899..	97	110	17,403
1874..	73	184	6,713	1900..	99	121	17,762
1875..	71	260	7,063	1901..	100	116	18,305
1876..	96	229	7,401	1902..	101	132	17,009
1877..	73	279	8,010	1903..	91	112	16,478
1878..	75	226	7,491	1904..	97	122	16,946
1879..	55	195	6,112	1905..	97	110	17,440
1880..	75	225	8,424	1906..	101	119	17,938
1881..	69	147	7,698	1907..	99	117	17,540
1882..	66	151	6,557	1908..	102	128	20,132

The figures of this table show more clearly than could otherwise be presented how thoroughly the county institute is established in Illinois. For more than fifty years it has been officially recognized as an efficient means of preparing men and women for the work of teaching. Since 1883 superintendents have been required to hold an annual institute. There are one hundred and two counties in the State. The figures

* Twentieth Biennial Report, Superintendent Public Instruction, Illinois, 1893-94, pages LXXIX-LXXXI.

showing the number of counties in which the institutes are held seem to indicate that all county superintendents do not comply with this requirement. It will appear that the figures under "counties" in the table should be one hundred and two in each year. The apparent discrepancy is due to the fact that two annual institutes of a county may be held within the same school year and thus for the year preceding or following that county may be reported as having no institute. In general, it may be said that every county in Illinois has a county teachers' institute.

While there has been from the beginning a gradual increase of attendance upon institutes, it will be observed that a larger number is reported for 1897 than for any year since that time except 1908. Slight differences may here be due also to the method of reporting. Still, since the number of teachers in the State, according to the report of 1908, is 28,524, and since due allowance must be made for a large number of persons enrolled in the institute who are not teachers but prospective teachers or visitors, it may safely be said that ten thousand teachers in Illinois do not attend the institutes.

THE PURPOSE AND VALUE OF THE COUNTY TEACHERS INSTITUTE.

The primary purpose of a teachers' institute is to secure better teaching. The first consideration, therefore, should be the needs of the teachers in the county in which the institute is held, for in the training of teachers, as in all educational work, the place to begin is with the ideas and interests of those who are to be trained or instructed. The institutes of a state in which the majority of teachers are graduates of colleges, universities or normal schools, as in Massachusetts and California, should not be identical in aim or method with the institutes of a state in which teachers have received inadequate academic and little or no professional preparation. It would be unpedagogical, therefore, as well as futile, to lay down the specific purposes of the county institute with the expectation or the idea that all institutes should conform to them. We may, however, consider with benefit the question as to what the main purpose of county institutes should be, taking into consideration the opportunity of teachers for professional and academic training and the requirements that are to be made of them.

All who become teachers in the schools should have a high school training or its equivalent, and should have passed a successful examination in English, the principles and methods of teaching, and the subjects of the elementary school curriculum. To continue in the work of teaching they should acquire, during the next four years, professional training at the rate of nine weeks per year, or be subjected to new examinations. Provision would thereby be made for fair academic preparation by the teacher and probably a modicum of professional training. This preparation and training should be acquired in schools recognized by the State educational authorities as properly equipped for the purpose. Instruction in an institute should receive no recognition. The institutes of the most advanced states may, in the future, it is hoped, safely neglect to some extent the provisions of instruction in the branches to be taught, and to some extent also instruction in the principles and methods of teaching, for both of these forms of instruction may be obtained elsewhere.

Again, a higher standard of academic and professional requirements implies a corresponding increase in teachers' wages. With better wages and with the opportunities provided by normal schools and colleges, teachers may equip themselves for their work, and should not be ex-

cused from so doing on account of attendance upon institutes. The institute can in no sense be a substitute for the college or the normal school. Page's definition of an institute as "a normal school having a very short course of study,"* is misleading. Instruction in the subject to be taught, in the principles and methods of teaching, and in the work of organizing, managing and governing schools, may be given, perhaps ought to be given, and will probably be given in any case, but this should not be the main purpose of the institute.

Recognizing then that the requirements of teachers may, and probably will for a long time, make it advisable to devote a considerable amount of attention in the institute to the matter of extending the teacher's knowledge of special branches and in perfecting skill in methods of instruction, we still insist that the institute should not be conducted primarily for these ends. The main purpose of the institute is to stimulate the desire of teachers for professional excellence so that they will be impelled to increase their professional knowledge and skill in schools established primarily for that purpose. The chief emphasis must therefore be laid upon developing in the minds of those who attend the institute, true conceptions in regard to the science and art of education and the dignity and nobility of the work of the teacher; upon inciting in the teacher, and the public generally, an enthusiasm for education; upon promoting a professional spirit and an *esprit du corps* which will raise to the maximum the practical efficiency of the teachers of the county.

As to the benefits, general and special, which may be derived from the county institute they seem in this day to be too obvious to need special argument or emphasis. It may be interesting, however, and it ought to be inspiring, to read what a former Superintendent of Public Instruction in Illinois thought and wrote on this subject fifty years ago. In his report of 1859-60, Newton Bateman argued for a more systematic plan of organizing and conducting county institutes and urged the Legislature to vote them liberal State support. His remarks are quite as applicable now as they were then. "The benefits of these conventions," said he, "to the teachers who attend them, and to the schools and community, are incalculable. The advantages to the teachers are general and special, professional and social. Through the lectures and addresses of eminent educators and scholars, they obtain broader and clearer views of the laws of mental development, and the true philosophy of teaching. They learn that the laws of material growth are not more immutable than those of intellectual growth, and that the mental faculties always unfold in a fixed and regular order of succession, first the perceptive, then the reflective, etc., and that a disregard or reversal of this natural order by the teacher, must result in failure, or such a perversion and distortion of the intellectual powers of the child as would be worse than failure. They learn that many teachers do not succeed, because they, themselves, have never been educated; because they have mistaken mere knowledge for discipline;

* Page on Teaching, p. 310.

the power of remembering and knowing, for the power of methodical thinking and reasoning; the knowledge of a thousand isolated facts, for the mastery of a single all-embracing principle. They learn that to be a truly successful teacher, involves more than they had ever dreamed of before—that, while anybody can “keep school,” none but a scholar, and, to some extent a philosopher, can *educate*. They learn that to equal the extreme delicacy and skill required to wisely direct the invisible forces of the brain and heart—to fully comprehend the sweep of their responsibilities, the issues of character and destiny that depend upon their forming hand, and go down the ages to bless or curse the race; that for all this, a range of scholarship, a precision of judgment and discrimination, and a philosophic symmetry of culture are demanded, which challenge to the utmost, the best powers of the best minds in the country. Teachers who have never before rightly estimated the importance and difficulty of their work, are thus led to judge of their own attainments by the light of a true standard, to “magnify their office,” and put forth the needful efforts to become teachers indeed.

It is a fact which can not be denied, that comparatively few teachers and school officers really know what sort of an education they are providing; whether it is well or ill-adapted to the purpose intended; whether it is founded upon the unchanging principles of mental progress, or upon crude theories, half digested schemes, and superficial views of the philosophy of mind. Few, comparatively, are aware that there are any well settled maxims upon which, as an immutable basis, the whole superstructure of all sound culture must rest. And hence, men who can “keep the children still” six hours a day, and hear them “say their lessons,” are deemed fit to be teachers. At the institute, the fallacy of these views is exposed, and their mischievous results are pointed out. The truth is there demonstrated, that the fundamental principles of all correct teaching, by which the work of education must be conducted, may be as clearly understood, and are as unalterable as the laws of light by which the telescope is constructed, or the rules of perspective and coloring by which the canvas is made to blush with beauty; that the attempt to teach without a knowledge of the former, is as absurd as to attempt the combination of lenses or the production of a picture without a knowledge of the latter, and far more disastrous in its effects.

But not only are teachers' institutes of great value as conducive to a more adequate conception of the exalted character of the work and the broad philosophic principles upon which it must be conducted, but also in affording direct assistance in particular cases; in aiding the teacher in the specific labors and practical difficulties of the school room.

It often happens that the teacher is in doubt about some point in grammar, some principle in science, some problem in mathematics, or some question of government. The cloud may have remained for years, and the point over which it rested have been anticipated with uneasiness, and passed with misgiving and dissatisfaction. The teacher is troubled by the consciousness that he does not clearly comprehend

the subject himself, and of course cannot make it plain to others—the thought haunts and depresses him. This is not a fancy picture; it is confirmed by the experience of many teachers. Now, let that teacher go to an institute and state his difficulty, and, in nine cases out of ten, he will find, among the shrewd and, experienced teachers present, a complete solution of the mystery; the cloud is gone, and he will return to his school with a light heart, no longer obliged to slur over or pretend to explain what he knows he does not understand. And then, too, the same answer that satisfied his mind, may have removed the difficulties from a score of other minds, and thus the teaching in half the schools of a county is improved by that single solution at that institute.

An instance in point now occurs. There was a teacher who did not clearly apprehend the philosophy of the rule for taking the cube root. While he could readily apply the rule in working examples, he never had understood it, and well knew that he had not, despite his bold assurance in the presence of his class. When at last the veil was lifted, and the clear light of positive knowledge broke upon his mind, as he saw the principle demonstrated, at an institute, by the aid of an algebraic binomial cube, his delight could scarcely be restrained. Archimedes never shouted "I have found it" more joyfully.

Then, again, it often happens that there are particular subjects which the teacher is unable to illustrate and teach successfully, although he thoroughly understands them. He resorts to various expedients, but the best method, the "happy thought," does not occur to him—he can not reproduce upon the blackboard, or in words, the clear outlines of the picture as it exists in his own mind, and is compelled to witness the unsatisfied expression of his pupils, but too plainly assuring him that he has not succeeded. None but a teacher who has felt the burden of such an inability to explain to others what he knows that he himself comprehends, can appreciate the sense of relief experienced, when the felicitous hint of some brother teacher at an institute, reveals the "better way" in a moment, and ends the trouble forever.

And what is true respecting the manner of presenting and illustrating particular points in the several branches of study, is equally true of the general method of teaching the whole subject. Many teachers entirely fail in the attempt to teach geography, history, etc., not because they lack a fair knowledge of those subjects, but because they do not know how to present them to others; they are ignorant of the best methods or have adopted vicious ones in their stead. It is the province of the teachers' institute to discuss methods of teaching, expose the faulty, to demonstrate and vindicate the wise and true.

Ignorance, and false ideas of the nature, ends and means of school government, are sources of great perplexity, and the proximate causes of disaster to many a young teacher. Skill in school discipline comes from experience only. There is, indeed, great diversity of natural gifts in this respect. Some men have a quick perception of the subtle springs of thought and action, and a power of guidance and control to which other men can never attain. But the truth remains, that effi-

ency and tact in directing the wayward impulses, diverse natures, and complex mental, moral and physical manifestations of youth, spring not from intuition, but are developed gradually, by trial. The great importance of this department of the teacher's duty can hardly be over-estimated. How many children are seriously injured, if not hopelessly ruined, by the ignorance or indiscretion of teachers in matters of discipline; how many schools have been broken up, how many communities have been embroiled in angry strife and vindictive litigation from the same cause. No other one subject receives a larger share of careful examination at an institute, than school government. All the different systems are compared; the various methods, motives and expedients adopted by the several members of the association, in their different fields of labor, are brought to view, and the bearings and results of each rigidly scrutinized, and its claims to favor admitted or rejected according to its character and fruits. Particular examples of special difficulty are cited, and the mode of treatment pursued, with its effects, minutely narrated. Now, into what a school of improvement is the young teacher here introduced, what wealth of suggestion is here presented to him, what variety of experience, what affluence of hints and expedients. He can hardly fail, in the multitude of cases reported and of resources and principles discussed, to find some exactly apposite to his own need; and thus, in a sense, he anticipates the results of his own experience, and becomes fortified, by the combined wisdom and experience of all his associates, against the day of trial in his own school. He acquires, in a single week, knowledge of inestimable value, for which he might otherwise have waited for years, and for want of which he might have groped and blundered and failed. It is to him as if he had visited, in person, all the schools represented in the institute, and noted for himself the results in each; a course, the time and expense of which no teacher can afford.

The professional spirit, the "*esprit du corps*," is quickened by these associations. Teachers are made to feel that they belong to an organized and honorable profession; to attain a front rank in which, they are stimulated, by a laudable ambition, to put forth renewed efforts. The standard of professional knowledge and skill is elevated; the worthy and the industrious are recognized and encouraged, while pretenders and drones are detected and disowned. Thus the ranks of the profession are sifted and purified. The views of different authors who have written on the subject of teaching, are fully canvassed, courses of professional reading are suggested to the teacher, and suitable books for teachers' libraries are designated. No teacher can maintain his position in this day, who does not read and study and think, as well as teach.

Again, the social advantages flowing from these frequent reunions of teachers, are eminently deserving of notice. The position of the teacher, except in large towns and cities, is comparatively isolated, and many a sensitive spirit feels this most keenly. His life-path is remote from the din of commerce, the busy avenues of trade, and the exciting arena of politics. There are, it is true, advantages in this; the mind

and heart are more tranquil, more in harmony with the calm pursuits of knowledge and instruction to which his life is devoted. But, man is a social being, and none have more need of genial converse and sympathy, of intercourse with those of kindred tastes and pursuits, than teachers. Their trials and enjoyments are peculiar—they have hours of sorrow and gladness, into which none can enter save those who have known the same. A sense of loneliness and isolation often comes over the minds of teachers, especially of such as pursue their vocation in sequestered rural districts. This often results in morbid sensitiveness, or confirmed despondency. Against such tendencies, there is no antidote equal in effect to the enthusiasm, the sparkling spirits, the cordial sympathy, the mental life, the ceaseless friction and flash of intellect, evoked by a well-conducted teachers' institute. By a sort of spiritual "induction," the electric current generated by the contact of associated minds, acts and reacts, till it permeates and vivifies the whole. Finding that others have experienced equal or greater trials, each takes courage to endure or triumph over his own. The friendships formed at the institute are often most pleasant and profitable, and lasting as life. Here the habits, manners, tastes, are improved and refined. Egotism, conceit, narrowness, and bigotry, to which teachers are supposed by some to be peculiarly exposed from being long accustomed to deal with *children*, by whom their superiority is habitually acknowledged give place to broader views, and humbler self-estimates. From the same cause, the tone of thought and feeling assumes a stronger and manlier type. The whole character, in brief, is elevated, strengthened and dignified.

But if the teachers only were benefited by institutes, the argument in their favor, though unanswerable, would be shorn of much of its real strength. Such is not the case, nor indeed is it possible that it should be. To say that the schools themselves must share in all the advantages accruing to the teachers, is to state a self-evident truth. The relation of the former to the latter, is simply that of the stream to the fountain. The effects upon the school of a sounder philosophy, a broader culture, and a higher aim in the teachers, are as immediate and refreshing as those of showers and sunshine upon the parched and sterile soil. Order springs from confusion, energy from stagnation, intellectual life from intellectual death, as by the wand of a magician. The new life of the teacher is communicated to the scholars, and penetrates the school in all its interests, through and through. Not a new idea, a valuable hint, or a clearer knowledge of any subject, is received by the teacher at the institute, which is not imparted to the pupils, or used for the improvement of the school. All his increase of capital, of whatsoever sort it may be, is at once invested, and becomes immediately, richly and permanently productive.

Finally, and as a sequence from the reasons already advanced, the argument for the utility of teachers' institutes culminates in the good results following from them to the community at large, and to the general interests of education. All the exercises and discussions are open, not only to teachers, but to school officers, parents, and the friends

of common schools, without distinction. The meetings are always attended by large numbers of persons who are not teachers, but who are deeply interested in the success of our system of public instruction. Among the good results which accrue to the community directly and necessarily, from the presence of the citizens at these deliberations, are the following:

1. The public mind is aroused to the transcendent importance of the subject of education. No obstacle to the progress of free schools is so formidable as the profound indifference and apathy of the people. The most convincing logic, the most moving appeals, learning the most profound, eloquence the most persuasive and captivating, will all be lost upon those who do not perceive the necessity and value of the measures proposed for their adoption. But, let the vastness of the issues involved be clearly seen, and felt to be commensurate with the earnestness of the invocation to duty, and men will act. So it is in educational work. The people are indifferent. They can be indifferent, only because they do not apprehend as a clear and definite *reality*, the momentous interests to themselves, their children and their country which cluster around the question of universal education. But let the truth be presented in its real colors, its own simple greatness, and there will be an end of indifference. Let the relation of universal intelligence and virtue to the welfare of the country and the fate of the Republic be pointed out—let the peril of entrusting the destinies of a government like ours, the principles of which are embodied in written constitutions and laws, to the arbitration of masses who are unable to read and write be brought home to the mind—let the fact be demonstrated that trusts and responsibilities, vaster in extent, and more sacred in character than were ever before committed to any people, are in the providence of God, committed to us, and that the most momentous question that can be propounded to this age is: Have we wisdom and virtue enough to redeem those trusts and discharge those responsibilities? Let the appalling certainty that if we neglect the education of our children, if we do not teach them how to use the blessings of liberty, we shall perish by a deeper and more terrible perdition than ever yet befell any people, be impressed upon the public heart and conscience. Let all this be done, and the people will rally round the cause of education with beating hearts and trembling hopes and a devotion scarcely surpassed by that which the ancient Israelites lavished upon the Ark of God. And all this it is the province of a well-conducted teachers' institute to accomplish.

2. A true standard is set before the people, by which they can determine the qualifications of teachers; and the character of schools. That good schools and competent teachers are the exception, in the State, and not the rule, can not be denied. The reason of this is to be found, to a great extent, in the equally undeniable fact, that very few, comparatively, have a clear conception of what constitutes a good teacher and a good school—of what elements must form the one, and what principles must govern the other. Hence, directors and other

school officers, having no definite knowledge, no well-settled principles, no fixed land-marks to guide their action, will be as likely to go wrong as right, to make an unwise choice of teachers, and indorse false views of instruction and discipline as to secure the best teachers and the best methods of instruction. None but he, who has a cultivated eye and a knowledge of art, would be trusted to select a gallery of paintings—a merchant would not employ a farmer to purchase his goods, nor the latter confide to the judgment of the former the management of his estates. But the results in each of these cases would be as likely to be satisfactory and fortunate, as those which ensue from the false standard, or blind choice of school officers. It is not pretended that the unlettered and the non-professional can become adepts in science and in the philosophy of teaching, by merely attending an institute, nor is this essential to the end in view. But it is confidently claimed, that many false ideas will be removed, that many guiding principles will be clearly established, that great progress will be made towards a clearer judgment and a wiser policy. No man, I care not how humble his intellect or alien his pursuits, can retire from a well organized institute, upon the exercises of which he has closely attended, without information which will make him a better director, and a more *intelligent* friend of education, for the rest of his life. *All* who attend will be benefited more or less—all will be firmer in their support of a wise and efficient policy, because all will better understand what such a policy is. But, grant that only a few, after all, can be sufficiently enlightened in the principles, and instructed in the details of the subject, to become competent leaders in the educational work; enough at least of the nature, importance and difficulty of the work, can be learned by all to demonstrate the wisdom of committing the management of it to *those few*, and that alone would be a gain of vast importance. For it is an almost universal truth that the most ignorant are the most confident; the most incompetent are the most self-sufficient. A decisive step in the right direction has been taken, therefore, when a community is brought to see that something more than moral honesty and mere business capacity is required in a school commissioner, a school director and a teacher, and seeing this, to consent that the best qualified, and no others, shall fill those difficult positions. It is not conceded, however, that the exercises of the institute do not furnish the intelligent non-professional observer with reliable data for an accurate estimate of the teacher's abilities, in some important particulars. He can form a correct judgment of his *aptness* in teaching and ability to *illustrate* with felicity. These qualities by no means always accompany adequate *scholarship*.

While it may be true, as a general rule, that a man can state clearly what he understands clearly, and, hence, that inability to explain is *prima facie* evidence of imperfect knowledge, still the exceptions to this are very numerous. It can not be doubted that the powers of language and of imagination, by which apposite symbols and pictures of truth are summoned at the moment of need, are so limited in some men, of whose learning there is no question, that they can not succeed as teachers. Whatever the cause, the defect is a most serious one. Now,

it is not too much to say, that any attentive observer of the proceedings of an institute can know, infallibly, whether a teacher possesses this qualification or not, so far as relates to subjects within the range of his own comprehension. If it is an exercise in arithmetic, for example, he knows whether the teacher makes it clear to his own mind, or not—whether the illustrations are pertinent and forcible, or not—and knowing this in his own case, he can reason from himself to others. Nor is it material, so far as a knowledge of the fact is concerned, whether the cause be defective scholarship, or a peculiarity of mental constitution—whether the teacher “knows but can not tell,” or does not know, and therefore can not tell. So in grammar, geography, history, reading, etc., the observer knows whether the exercises are rendered perspicuous and interesting to him or not, and can form his judgment accordingly. So also, in questions of discipline, etc., it is easy to see whether the principles and methods advocated are wise and prudent. Thus by hearing fundamental principles examined and demonstrated at the institutes by able and experienced men—by comparing the efforts of the members with these established principles, and noting the success or failure of each teacher, the people have placed before them a correct standard, theoretical and practical, by which they can judge of the essential elements of good schools and competent teachers. The benefits that will redound to the community from this improved capacity of school officers and the people, to estimate the wants of the schools, and the conditions of success, are incalculable. A new order of things will ensue. Higher ideas will prevail. With the knowledge of the vast distance between good schools and bad ones, the latter will rapidly cease to be tolerated. Pompous mediocrity and blustering assurance will give place to sound scholarship and modest worth. Masters in the art of teaching will be employed, and well paid, while sciolists and smatterers will not be allowed at any price. The truth that the best schools are in the end the cheapest—that no district can afford to purchase the services of an incompetent teacher, will advance towards universal recognition.

3. Mutual confidence and good understanding are established between the people, and school officers and teachers. As the former learn more of the trials and difficulties of the latter, a spirit of sympathy and forbearance is generated, and above all the necessity of a firm and cordial coöperation in all just measures for the good of the schools is made apparent. Teachers and school officers, on the other hand, often find that they have been betrayed into harsh judgments of the conduct of the people; into wrong impressions of their motives, feelings and purposes. The fact is not seldom elicited, that what was construed into malevolence, or bigotry, or wanton interference, was in fact only the result of misapprehension. Much that was attributed to a want of respect and sympathy is found to be due to a want of information only. And thus, mutual esteem, unity of aim, and hearty coöperation, the great bulwarks of strength and success, are happily secured.

It would be easy to extend this line of remarks, and adduce other equally weighty considerations in favor of sustaining and multiplying these simple agencies for the development of our system of public instruction. Enough has been said, it is confidently believed, to arrest the notice and secure the candid examination, if not the approval of the representatives of the people and friends of education. It is important, however, to add that the views and reasonings now presented, and to which your favorable regard is respectfully and earnestly invited, derive strong confirmation from the actual experience of the past two years. Teachers' institutes have been held, during the period embraced in this report, in about fifty counties in this State. And the facts authorize the emphatic statement, that, wherever they have been *rightly conducted by able and experienced educators*, the results have amply vindicated their claim to the high position here assigned to them. They have afforded a sure index of the vitality, condition and progress of the common school cause.

But this leads to another and most important view of the subject. The conviction can not be resisted by a candid and well-informed observer of our educational affairs, that the condition italicised in the above sentence, is *absolutely essential* to the realization of the advantages here urged as the legitimate fruits of teachers' institutes—upon no other condition can their defense be maintained upon the high ground here assumed—upon no other would I attempt it. To accomplish the beneficent purpose of their organization; to justify the needful expenditure of time and money, however small that may be; to realize the expectations of the friends of education, the institutes *must* be guided by the counsels of wisdom and prudence—the exercises must be conducted by able, experienced and scientific teachers. If the “blind lead the blind,” the “ditch” will be the inevitable destination of both. The necessity of bringing to the work the highest ability and talent at our command, must be evident from the nature of the work itself. An institute is a school—but the pupils are *teachers*. The instruction, therefore, to be adapted, must be of a higher character, a wider range than that of ordinary schools. It must deal with systems and principles, and philosophies, as well as facts and details. Limited experience and ordinary skill and learning are not adequate for these higher departments of the work. There is, indeed, much for all to do, and no institute is true to its aim in which every member does not bear a part—in which the powers of each are not tested, and the services of each made to contribute to the common fund of improvement. But the imperative necessity of a directing mind, to lay out the work, unfold the higher principles of the science of teaching, and *hold the institute steadily on its legitimate course*, is not thereby in the least impaired. Without this the institute would drift out into the sea of irrelevant discussion, or waste its time on unprofitable trifles, or be led astray by false philosophy, or degenerate into a scene of mere recreation and sport.”*

* Third Biennial Report, Superintendent Public Instruction, Illinois; 1869-70, pp. 40-49.

ORGANIZING AND CONDUCTING INSTITUTES.

The county institute work of a state, like its other educational agencies, should be systematized under the executive head of the school system. For this reason the State Board of Education or the Superintendent of Public Instruction should be authorized and empowered to propose plans for organizing and conducting institutes. There should be, perhaps, no legal provision requiring these plans to be followed. County superintendents should not be relieved of authority and responsibility in regard to organizing and conducting their own institutes. The plans proposed, however, will be, or should be, the product of the most careful thought and the most painstaking inquiry into the educational needs and conditions of the different counties of the State and also the institute experience of other parts of the country. Being the result of such careful study they should be so suggestive and helpful, and consequently so satisfactory, that county superintendents will voluntarily adopt them and adapt them, as closely as conditions will permit, in organizing and conducting the institutes of their own counties. The institute work of the State will thus tend to become more and more systematic and uniform, and more and more designed to realize common educational purposes. County institutes are a part of the general educational system of the State and should therefore be systematized to the extent that system promotes efficiency. It is impossible to establish and complete uniformity and yet preserve those elements of spontaneity and local adaptation which are essential to a successful institute. A rigid system attained at the expense of local interest and initiative is not the kind of system and uniformity desired. The different educational conditions of different counties make it necessary that any State plan for organizing and conducting county institutes be more or less elastic. This is a sufficient reason why, in organizing and conducting institutes, the relation of the State Board of Education and the Superintendent of Public Instruction to county superintendents should be advisory and coöperative rather than authoritative. On the part of the State authorities, however, it should be an active and not a passive relation. The board should devise and publish plans, and then rely on the merits of these plans, and not on its own power to enforce them, to secure their adoption.

JOINT INSTITUTES.

In some of the states the law provides that two or more adjoining counties may hold an institute together. This is a wise provision which should be taken advantage of more frequently than is now the case in any of the states. There are great and obvious advantages in the union of small counties which have a suitable meeting place easily accessible to the teachers, for the purpose of holding an institute. There are disadvantages, of course, but the advantages in the way of economy in providing institute instruction, of a better opportunity in securing instructors, and of the enthusiasm awakened through the association of a larger number of teachers, far outweigh them. If, as should be the

case, the institutes of a state are held within the school period and at about the same time, the holding of joint institutes will lessen the difficulty of securing a sufficient number of competent instructors to carry on the work.

THE TIME OF HOLDING INSTITUTES.

County institutes should be held within the school year, and as soon after the schools open as practicable. There are several reasons why this is expedient. They should be held within the school year because they constitute naturally a part of the regular work of the school year and should be so considered by school officers and teachers, and by the public as well. This period ought to be the most convenient for the county superintendent, who needs the summer vacation for the clerical work of his office. On the opening of the schools he should be free to devote his time to supervision. The institute is an important if not an essential means to this end.

The school period is more convenient for the teachers also for they should have their summers free to attend school, to devote to private study, rest and recreation, or to other methods of self improvement. It is hard to give to an institute held in the vacation period any immediate and vital relation to the actual school work of the county. The implication of a "summer institute" is that it is held primarily for the teachers and not primarily for the schools. Beginning teachers especially should have the entire summer vacation for attending a school which provides special preparation for their work as teachers. The certifying plan of the commission requires an annually increasing amount of professional preparation. This requirement can not be met by attending the institute. If the institute is held within the summer vacation teachers engaged in securing the required preparation can not be present. The present practice in most counties is to excuse these teachers from attending the institute. But unless the objects of the school and the institute are the same it is desirable that all the teachers be present in the institute whether they have attended school during the summer or not. The aim of the institute is chiefly professional and immediate. A county superintendent can no more afford to excuse a teacher from attending than the superintendent of an industrial corporation whose productive efficiency depends upon the progressive spirit and coöperation of individual men could afford to excuse any of them from attending a meeting designed to promote the productive capacity of the plant. Again, if the institute is held soon after the opening of the school, teachers come to the institute with their minds upon educational problems and the practical difficulties of the school room. They are, therefore, in a more receptive mental attitude than they are likely to be in the summer vacation. Teachers who are beginning the work of the school room will have had time enough to become acquainted with some of the difficulties of teaching and to have had aroused in their mind definite inquiries in regard to the methods of teaching and govern-

ment. The experience, however brief, is necessary in order to awaken the interest of the teachers to the highest degree in the instruction and work of the institute. It is an advantage, too, to have the teachers go immediately from the institute to apply their newly acquired knowledge and newly developed power in the work of the school room and to profit by the inspiration derived from the institute.

The chief difficulty connected with holding the institutes of the State at the time suggested is that of securing a sufficient number of competent instructors to carry on the work. There will be many institutes in session at the same time. Normal schools and universities will have begun their work for the year and consequently few from the faculties of these institutions will be available for institute instruction. It may, therefore, be desirable to begin the institute work of the State in the week preceding the opening of schools. But when this is done the institute should be considered as a part of the school work of the year. Here is a matter in which a State director of institutes could be of great service in helping to arrange the institutes of the State so that about the same number of institutes might be conducted in consecutive weeks.

DIRECTORS OF INSTITUTES.

To the extent that the State Board of Education and the Superintendent of Public Instruction are active in assisting in the work of organizing and conducting institutes, and in coöperating with county superintendents in securing competent instruction, there will need to be some personal agency for carrying their will into effect. This purpose will best be served through the appointment of a State director or directors of institutes who will act under the immediate direction of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. This official should be an expert in all matters pertaining to teachers' institutes and should devote a large part of his time, if not all of it, to assisting county superintendents in organizing and conducting institutes, to preparing outlines of courses of instruction, to consulting county superintendents, and to devising general plans to increase the economy and efficiency of the institute work of the State. He should give instruction in as many institutes as possible. If any part of his time is not required in the duties just mentioned, his services could be employed in the inspection of schools.

Under the topic "County Institutes of Illinois" it was pointed out that Superintendents of Public Instruction of this State, beginning with Newton Bateman, urged the appointment of a State agent whose chief function should be to encourage the organization of institutes. The organization of institutes, however, is no longer anywhere a subject of State concern, since institutes are held in every county in all the states. The subject of greatest interest now in connection with institutes is their improvement and the organization of the institute work of the State so as to secure competent instructors in a sufficient number and to promote desirable uniformity in the methods and aims of institute instruction. These ends can be achieved only by the careful supervision of an expert institute director.

A director of institutes should serve as an institute instructor in as many counties as possible, and in the place of a special instructor employed by the county superintendent, consequently he would save to the counties a large part of the salary he would receive from the State. The increased efficiency of institutes brought about by the efforts of a skillful institute director in conjunction with county superintendents would far outweigh the expense of his employment. It is a case in which a small expenditure should effect a great economy. In New York five institute conductors are employed by the state to organize and conduct the various teachers' institutes.

THE DURATION OF INSTITUTES.

If institutes are held within the school period they should continue not to exceed five days. A longer period is too large a break in the regular work of the schools, and is perhaps unnecessary to accomplish the main purposes of the institute unless these purposes are conceived as academic rather than professional. If academic instruction were the end aimed at very little of value could be accomplished in a week. If under the plan proposed the institute continued for a longer time it would be likely to assume the character of a school for academic instruction and thus tend to defeat the higher purposes of professional insight and inspiration.

THE METHOD OF SECURING INSTRUCTORS AND THE CHARACTER OF THE INSTRUCTION.

As to the method of securing instructors for institutes, they should be secured by the county superintendent with the concurrence of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. This concurrence should be secured, however, before negotiating with an instructor and not after he has been employed, and the matter of ascertaining whether in a given case concurrence will be given should, as a rule, rest with the instructor himself and not with the county superintendent. It will, therefore, be necessary for the Superintendent of Public Instruction to keep and publish a list of the names of all persons eligible to give instruction in the institutes of the State. The manner in which this list shall be prepared, that is, the standard of qualifications to be established for those who desire to give institute instruction and the method of determining whether the standard is attained, should be left with him or the State Board of Education.

Here again is revealed the relation which should exist between the State educational authorities and the county superintendents in organizing and conducting the institutes of the State. There should be left with the county superintendent a wide opportunity for initiative and free choice in the selection of those who are to instruct his teachers. At the same time the Superintendent of Public Instruction and the State Board of Education should render him all possible assistance and protect him and his teachers from incompetent instructors. If the

quality of instruction in an institute is poor the institute must necessarily be in part a failure. The problem of securing competent instruction is therefore the most difficult problem of the institute, and no available means of arriving at a satisfactory solution of it should be neglected.

It is not a difficult matter to secure instructors if no standard of qualification is erected. The difficulty is to select from the vast number willing to give instruction in institutes those who are qualified to do so. If the institute is to serve the purpose for which it is intended, if it is to promote the scientific and professional spirit of teachers and arouse a permanent interest in the philosophy of education and its practical application in the school room, if it is to stimulate the earnest thought of the teachers and the public on educational questions and evoke sincere devotion to educational ends, the competence of instructors must be unquestionable. They must be able and disposed to present sane views and solid matter. Without decrying the introduction in the institute of new theories and methods, and without disparaging the employment of that amount of humor necessary to awaken the flagging attention of teachers, it may be said emphatically that the institute is no place for visionaries and fun makers. Professional entertainers have their place and function and contribute a necessary social service, but their place is not in the institute. If entertainment is made the end of institute instruction the main purpose of the institute is defeated. The only instruction that is likely to be of permanent value is that which is instructive in character and serious in purpose. The purpose need not always be strictly pedagogical. The instruction which enlarges life's ideals and purposes may be no less valuable to the teacher than that which enlarges professional knowledge. In general, however, it may be said that an institute instructor should be acquainted with the principles and methods of teaching and observe them in the presentation of his own instruction; that he should possess a knowledge of the problems, the difficulties, the defects, the achievements and the ideals of our common schools; that he should have enthusiasm and the ability to present the material of his instruction in clear and forceful English, and that he be successful in securing the response of teachers to the presentation of his subject matter.

A mistake that is often made is to load down the program of the institute with too much instruction. If the sessions are general and the lecture method is employed, as is usually the case in Indiana and Pennsylvania, two strong lecturers are sufficient. These should each deliver two lectures a day and each should have the opportunity to question the teachers on the subjects which he has discussed. The lectures of each of these instructors should be on one general subject, that is, the discussion should be continuous and thus designed to produce a cumulative effect on the teachers. The superintendent and his instructors should agree beforehand on the lines of work to be pursued and deviations from that line should not be made except for sufficient cause. If these instructors are capable they will present all the instruc-

tion the teachers can assimilate. Any time that remains, is needed, and should be taken by the county superintendent, himself, who should always be active in an institute in the discussion of educational questions and in presenting to his teachers and calling forth from them plans for improving the schools of the county.

THE ATTENDANCE OF TEACHERS.

During the time the county institute is in session the schools of the county should be closed and all teachers should be in attendance. For the week of the institute the wages of teachers should be allowed just the same as if they were engaged in teaching. This would involve sometimes only a slight statutory change in the school law, as for instance in Illinois where the law now provides that "the time not exceeding three days in any one term, or five days in any one school year, during term time, actually spent by a teacher of any public school in this State in attendance upon a teachers' institute, held under the direction of the county superintendent of schools, shall be considered time lawfully expended by such teacher in the service of the district where such teacher is employed, and no deduction of wages shall be made for such absences."*

This provision of the law implies that in attending the institute the teacher is serving the district, and this is true. The institute is established not primarily for the teachers but primarily for the schools. Without the institute there can not be the most efficient school supervision or the most effective school work. The benefits of the institute, therefore accrue chiefly to the community. They result in better supervision, better teaching, and consequently better schools. The payment of wages to teachers for attendance at the institute is not, then, in the nature of a gratuity. It is, in part at least, payment rendered for service performed, and the payment should be cheerfully made because of the returns derived from it. It is unjust to the teachers to require them to sustain the loss of a week's wages while attending an institute established as a means of promoting the welfare of the community through the improvement of the schools.

Again, it is desirable, even essential, that all the teachers of the county should be present at the institute. The absence of a single teacher defeats to some extent the purpose for which it exists. By the payment of wages for the time spent in attending the institute the attendance of teachers may with justice be required. If institutes are held at the time suggested and the teachers are paid for attendance, the percentage of the number of teachers who attend will approximate one hundred per cent instead of sixty-five per cent, which is about the present percentage of attendance. In case a teacher should not attend the institute, his wages should not be allowed.

* School Law of Illinois, Article VII, section 11.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT.

At present county institutes are supported in many of the states almost entirely by examination fees. In Illinois, for instance, the total amount derived from all sources during the year 1906-07 for the support of institutes was \$52,665.96. Of this amount \$23,984.94 was the balance of the institute fund proper on hand July 1, 1906. The difference between the amount collected and the balance is \$28,681.02, which represents the actual cost of the institutes of the State. Of this amount only \$993 was derived from registration fees and \$360.18 from incidental sources. The county boards of the State contributed \$236.15. The burden of the expense of the institutes of the State falls at present, therefore, almost wholly upon the teachers. This is essentially unjust. A policy which imposes upon the teachers of the State whose wages are comparatively low the entire burden of an institution from which the pupils of the schools, their parents, and the community receive the chief benefits is indefensible on any grounds. As said before, the institute is a part of the free school system itself and should therefore be as accessible to the teachers as the school is to the child. "If common schools are a great public blessing," said Bateman, "and if institutes are essential to their growth and improvement, then it would seem clear that the same fostering care which provides for the one, should be mindful of the other."*

In addition to the injustice of the present plan of supporting county institutes it is fatally defective in that it does not provide for the smaller counties an amount sufficient to support a good institute. For the year ending June 30, 1907, for instance, the institute fund in Illinois derived from certification fees was in seven counties less than one hundred dollars, in twenty-two counties less than two hundred dollars and in forty counties less than three hundred dollars. The average cost of the institutes of the State is about \$275. The average cost of the institutes of Indiana last year was \$271.74. New York appropriates for the support of county institutes an amount which gave to each institute in the State in 1907 on the average, \$414.06. It is clear then that in more than one-third of the counties of the State the fees for certification, which constitute the bulk of the institute fund, do not provide a sufficient amount to support the kind of institute demanded by the educational interests of the State. On the other hand the larger counties are provided with a surplus of funds—some with more than one thousand dollars, and two counties with \$3,366.02 and \$3,626.20 respectively. Hence there is in many counties a large balance of unused institute funds. The total balance of the institute funds of the various counties on hand July 1, 1906 was \$23,984.94. Thus we see that some counties of the State have large institute funds, more than they need, while some, on account of the small number of teachers required and consequently the small amount derived from examination fees, have less than is necessary to provide good institute instruction. The problem is to equalize the institute privileges of the various teachers of

* Third Biennial Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Illinois, 1859-60, page 50.

the State and consequently to promote the efficiency of the schools in those counties in which high standards of institute work mean excessive or impossible financial burdens.

The method of solving this problem should be in the nature of an attempt to level up the character of all the institutes to a minimum degree of efficiency, while at the same time allowing to any county the privilege of surpassing the minimum to any extent desired. This means the provision of a minimum amount of money for each institute of the State, so that every county may be assured of a good institute, and the freedom of every county to appropriate from the county treasury or to raise from the teachers themselves an additional sum to supplement the minimum appropriation in case a larger expense is incurred. Whence should come this minimum appropriation?

As has already been shown, the teachers of Illinois have borne almost the entire burden of the expense of institutes since they were inaugurated more than sixty years ago. Prior to 1883, since which time institutes have been mainly supported by the examination and registration fees required of teachers, the institutes of the State were supported mainly by voluntary contributions made by the teachers. It is time to lift the burden of the institute from the shoulders of the teachers. If they are relieved of the payment of fees to provide for an institute fund, they will still bear in connection with the institute no inconsiderable burden on account of the additional personal expense made necessary in attending the institute. They must pay their traveling expenses to and from the place in which the institute is held, and make an extra outlay for room and board. They are sometimes required in the institute, and always urged, to spend more money for books and journals. The only request that can be rightfully made of the teachers, then, is that they voluntarily assess themselves for the support of an institute which is better than the established minimum. They should be asked to contribute no more. What, then, of the county?

Under the proposed plan of conducting institutes the county will provide for the incidental expenses of the institute and will support a large part of the financial burden occasioned by the payment of wages to teachers during the session of the institute. If, in addition, the county were required to appropriate a sum sufficient to insure a good institute, we should have the same difficulty as at present, namely, the unequal distribution of the burden of institutes. It would be unfair to the smaller counties. Sometimes the law contains the specific provision that "county boards are authorized to make appropriations for the holding of county teachers' institutes." County boards, as a rule, do not exercise this power with the liberality which might be expected. Still, the power should remain with these boards to contribute, so that in counties which are able to supplement the fund provided, and in which the educational sentiment demands an institute which is not only good but excellent, the institute fund provided from other sources may be supplemented by the county board. The county should not be required, however, to assume more of the financial burden of institutes than will fall upon it naturally by the proposed plan. The fixed appropriation should not come from the county.

There remains only the State. The State receives a large part of the benefits of institutes just as it receives a large part of the benefits of the common school system. The State in most cases is committed to the policy of providing free schools for the children of the State and of providing practically free training for the teachers of the State through the establishment of normal schools. By the same reasoning by which a State appropriation for the maintenance of normal schools is justified, the partial support of institutes by the State may also be justified. Some states have come to recognize the true relation between the institutes of the state and the schools, and make liberal support to sustain the institute. As has already been pointed out, New York appropriates about \$50,000.00 annually for the support of institutes. Wisconsin also assumes the entire burden of institutes and appropriates \$23,000.00. West Virginia is another state which assumes a large share of the expense of its institutes.

Taking into consideration, then, the fact that under the proposed plan of organizing and conducting institutes the teachers bear a part of the financial burden by the payment of the additional personal expense made necessary in attending them, and the further fact that the county will bear a fair share of the burden by the payment of teachers' wages during the week of the institute and by the payment of the incidental expenses of the institute, the efficiency of the institutes of the State and the interests of the schools will best be promoted if the State pays the remainder of the cost through a fixed appropriation. The amount of this appropriation should certainly be not less than \$300.00 for each county.

INSTITUTE PLAN PROPOSED BY THE COMMISSION.

On the basis of the facts set forth in this chapter the commission recommends that county institutes be held within the school year and continue for five days; that during the session of an institute all the common schools of the county or counties holding such institute shall be closed and that the teachers who attend shall suffer no deduction of wages; and that the expenses of the institutes of the State be incurred by the State and not, as heretofore, by the teachers. The complete plan of the commission is embodied in the following bill:

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the People of the State of Illinois, represented in the General Assembly:* That the county superintendent of each county shall hold annually an institute, which shall continue in session not fewer than five days, for the instruction of teachers and those who may desire to teach. With the concurrence of the Superintendent of Public Instruction he shall employ such instructors as may be necessary to conduct such institute. The State Board of Education may prescribe the standard of qualifications to be required of such instructors. Two or more adjoining counties may hold an institute together.

Sec. 2. During the time the institute is in session the common schools of the county or counties holding the institute shall be closed, and the time actually spent by the teachers in attendance upon the institute shall be considered time lawfully spent in the service of the district, and no deduction of wages shall be made for such attendance.

Sec. 3. To defray the expenses of teachers' institutes there is hereby appropriated out of any moneys in the State Treasury not otherwise set apart the sum of two hundred and fifty dollars for each institute held in each county, or not to exceed four hundred dollars for each joint institute, and fifty cents additional for each teacher in actual and regular attendance, and regularly employed in the county or counties holding the institute, to be paid upon the warrant of the Auditor of State, issued upon an itemized statement of the expenses incurred in connection with the institute verified by affidavit by the superintendent or superintendents holding the institute, and approved by the State Board of Education.

Sec. 4. All Acts or parts of Acts in conflict herewith are hereby repealed.

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SALARIES OF TEACHERS.

In the declaration of principles adopted by the National Educational Association of 1903 it was asserted that "teaching in the public schools will not be a suitably attractive and permanent career, nor will it command as much of the ability of the country as it should, until the teachers are properly compensated and are assured of an undisturbed tenure during efficiency and good behavior. A large part of the teacher's reward, must always be the pleasure in the character and quality of the work done; but the money compensation of the teacher should be sufficient to maintain an appropriate standard of living. Legislative measures to give support to these principles deserve the approval of the press and the people."*

It will be observed that the assertion involved in this declaration is not merely that the compensation of teachers generally is not in proportion to the services they render, which is an idea often advanced in educational discussions which arrive at no practical end, but what is more to the purpose, that the salaries teachers receive are frequently insufficient to maintain an appropriate standard of living.

Now, the inability of a teacher to maintain an appropriate standard of living, with all that it implies with respect not merely to food, clothing and shelter, but also with respect to the means of culture and recreation, prevents him from rendering the degree of service of which he is capable. The fact, therefore, if it is a fact, that teachers are underpaid is not merely proof of injustice to the teachers, but also an indication that in the employment of teachers at present salaries society is practicing a false economy. It is evident that we are violating not only the interests of teachers but also those of the children as well. In economics it is a generally accepted principle that low wages do not necessarily mean a low cost of production. High wages may, and often do, lower the cost of production by increasing the efficiency of labor. In the field of education the same principle is involved. We sometimes hear it expressed in the proposition that "the best teachers are the cheapest." This means, of course, that it is economy to hire a good teacher even if the salary is high. The fundamental questions, then, with respect to teachers salaries are: Do the services rendered by teachers bear any relation to the compensation they receive? Are the wages now paid to teachers too low? If so, would an increase in wages bring benefits proportionally greater than the amount of increase? To all of these questions the answer must be an affirmative. The second question, however, is the one to which attention will now be directed.

*Quoted by Charles H. Verrill in Report of the Committee on Salaries, Tenure and Pensions of Public School Teachers in the United States, Report N. E. A., July, 1905, page 459.

SALARIES IN GENERAL.

What are the facts in regard to the wages of teachers? The most exhaustive study of the question that has been recently made is that of the committee on salaries, tenure and pensions of public school teachers in the United States, appointed by the National Educational Association in 1903, and which embodied the results of its investigation in a voluminous report published in 1905. In this report the committee shows that in nearly every city in the country the earnings of unskilled laborers exceed those of the lowest paid elementary teachers. Again, the Mosely commission consisting of twenty old British educational experts, appointed in 1903 to make an investigation of the schools and school systems of the United States, unanimously concluded that "the remuneration of teachers is by no means always placed on a satisfactory basis." This conclusion is the more significant because of the fact that the commission confined its investigation chiefly to the schools of the larger cities, while it is in the rural schools of the country that the teachers as a whole are most inadequately paid.

The conditions with respect to the compensation of teachers have led some of the states, as, for instance, Indiana, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, to appoint commissions to investigate the question of teachers' salaries. The conclusion arrived at in each case has been similar to that of the committee appointed by the National Educational Association. Concerning the conditions in Minnesota, for instance, a committee appointed by the State Teachers' Association reported that while conditions were somewhat better in that state than for the whole country that even here the wages of the unskilled laborer are better than those of teachers in all classes. "The nearest computation possible for Minnesota," says the report of this committee, "makes the average annual salary for all teachers \$411.00, which is \$50.00 less than the annual income of section men on railroads, who receive from \$1.25 to \$1.75 per day, but is \$50.00 more than the income of domestic servants who average \$4.00 per week, in addition to board and home comforts. However, if we think only of the 11,908 women who taught in Minnesota last year, whose average annual salary was \$336.00, we say that even the average domestic servant earning \$364.00 was better paid than the average female teacher."*

A writer in the Educational Review for January, 1907, says: "The average monthly pay of women teachers in the United States is \$39.77."† This is perhaps slightly below the mark. But if the average wages of all women teachers are near forty dollars a month it is obvious that women teaching in rural schools, in which wages are lowest and terms are shortest, receive a miserably small compensation for their services. Just what this compensation is can not be ascertained, since the educational reports of the various states, as a rule, make no distinction between the salary statistics of rural schools and those of city schools. It may be inferred, however, in the manner just suggested or from the facts so far as they are made known. In 1897 the Committee on Rural Schools, appointed by the National Educational Association, presented a table based

*Fourteenth Biennial Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Minnesota, 1905, pages 530-531.

†Where Education Breaks Down, by William McAndrew.

upon reports of state superintendents showing that in thirty-four states the average wages paid to men in rural schools was \$39.50 and the average wages of women in rural schools was \$33.00. Inasmuch as the average length of term of these rural schools is perhaps not more than six months, it follows that in 1897 the men teaching in the rural schools of the country received \$237.00 a year, the women about \$200.00 a year. Wages of teachers have advanced since that time, but taking into consideration the increased cost of living they are proportionately as low now, if not lower, than they were then. It is curious that the situation thus indicated does not destroy the complacency of the American public in regard to its investment in public schools. The fact is we do not expend half as much as would be necessary to place the schools of the country, especially the rural schools, abreast of the times.

The following table will show the number of days taught in the years indicated, and the wages of teachers in all the states for which statistics are available.

TABLE I.

Showing the Length of Term in Days, the Average Monthly Salaries of Men and Women Teachers and the Average Salaries of all Teachers in the Various States.

STATE.	Date of report.	Number of days taught.	AVERAGE MONTHLY SALARY OF TEACHERS.		
			Men.	Women.	All.
Alabama	1906	86.9	*\$ 47 23	*\$37 58	\$41 59
Arkansas	1906	81	39 80	35 13	42 62
California	1906	169	†39 31	†37 37	75 30
Colorado	1906	†136.4	†57 46	†49 57	64 84
Connecticut	1903	189.08	106 63	45 78
Delaware	1903	72 82	34 70	40 22
Florida	1906	110	*57 89	*38 97
Georgia	1907	115	27 81
Idaho	1906	138	71 00	55 90	60 11
Illinois	1906	171.6	\$47 47	\$39 62	64 44
Indiana	1906	142	59 20	53 20	55 60
Iowa	1906	160	48 62	36 06
Kansas	1906	130	\$48 00	\$40 00	\$41 88
Kentucky	1907	34 80
Louisiana	1907	146	74 50	49 00
Maine	1905	136	38 99	29 92	30 86
Maryland	1907	185	50 78
Massachusetts	1906	189	149 02	57 07	64 90
Michigan	1907	\$168	\$67 26	\$46 17
Minnesota	1906	†144	†48 63	†38 83	45 35
Mississippi	1903	123	33 54	29 46	30 84
Missouri	1906	†130	†38 91	†38 07	†38 57
Montana	1906	128	67 30	56 07	60 16
Nebraska	1906	167.7	60 78	45 49	45 70
Nevada	1906	158.7	112 51	87 96	71 93
New Hampshire	1906	157.3	151 07	135 20	†35 82
New Jersey	1905	188	103 02	54 46	61 90
New Mexico	1906	57 00
New York	1906	188.6	86 72
North Carolina	1906	32 68
North Dakota	1906	155.7	51 78	44 70	45 92
Ohio	1906	†160	†40 00	†37 00	41 79
Oklahoma	100	48 16	42 72	44 21
Oregon	1906	158.4	60 02	44 95
Pennsylvania	1907	163.2	52 82	39 47

Table 1—Concluded.

STATE.	Date of Report.	Number of days taught.	AVERAGE MONTHLY SALARY OF TEACHERS.		
			Men.	Women.	All.
Rhode Island.....	1905	194	149 02	53 70	59 25
South Carolina.....	1905	30 06
South Dakota.....	1906	155.5	63 14	43 67	45 89
Tennessee.....	1906	116	39 00	35 00	36 20
Texas.....	1905	112	60 01	48 01	52 71
Utah.....	1906	86 40	55 41
Vermont.....	1906	148	49 21	33 23	36 78
Virginia.....	1907	128	47 78	30 28
Washington.....	1906	167	67 86	53 50	56 89
West Virginia.....	1906	125	36 70
Wisconsin.....	1906	170	58 87	38 65
Wyoming.....	1906	140	77 29	48 34	52 21

* Average for white teachers only.

† Average paid in primary schools.

‡ Average in rural schools.

§ Average paid teachers in ungraded schools.

|| Average paid all teachers in township elementary schools.

A glance at this table will show not only that the average monthly wages of women teachers in a score of the states is less than \$40.00 a month, but that in nine of the states the average monthly wages of all teachers is less than that sum.

The true basis of computing a teacher's salary, however, is not the month, but the year. High monthly wages may be altogether inadequate if the term is short. The question of the length of the school term is therefore directly connected with that of the teacher's salary.

The following table will show the length of the minimum school term or year required, the length of the school month and the practice with regard to the allowance to teachers of holidays in all the states from which data have been secured.

TABLE.

Showing the Length of the Minimum School Term or Year Required, the Length of the School Month, and the Practice with Regard to the Allowance to Teachers of Holidays.

State.	Term.	Month.	Holidays.
Alabama.....	None.....	30 days.....	Not allowed.....
Arizona.....	None.....	30 days.....	Allowed.....
Arkansas.....	No law—3 months expected.....	20 days.....	Not allowed.....
California.....	8 months.....	30 days.....	Allowed.....
Colorado.....	3 months.....	4 weeks.....	Allowed.....
Connecticut.....	36 weeks.....	20 days.....	*
Delaware.....	140 days.....	30 days.....	*
Florida.....	4 months.....	30 days.....	Allowed.....
Georgia.....	5 months.....	30 days.....	Not allowed.....
Idaho.....	9 months.....	30 days.....	Allowed.....
Illinois.....	6 months.....	Calendar month.....	Allowed.....
Indiana.....	6 months.....	30 days.....	Not allowed.....
Iowa.....	120 days.....	30 days.....	Not allowed.....
Kansas.....	5 months.....	4 weeks.....	Not allowed.....
Kentucky.....	6 months.....	20 days.....	Not allowed.....

* The matter of allowing holidays is left with the local boards.

Table—Concluded.

State.	Term.	Month.	Holidays.
Louisiana.....	None.....	20 days.....	Allowed.....
Maine.....	20 weeks.....	20 days.....	Allowed.....
Maryland.....	10 months.....	Calendar month.....	Allowed.....
Massachusetts.....	32 weeks.....	20 days.....	Allowed.....
Michigan.....	5 months.....	20 days.....	Not allowed.....
Minnesota.....	5 months.....	4 weeks.....	Allowed.....
Mississippi.....	4 months.....	20 days.....	Not allowed.....
Missouri.....	8 months.....	4 weeks.....	Allowed.....
Montana.....	3 months.....	20 days.....	Allowed.....
Nebraska.....	7 months.....	20 days.....	Not allowed.....
Nevada.....	6 months.....	20 days.....	Not allowed.....
New Hampshire.....	20 weeks.....	20 days.....	Not allowed.....
New Jersey.....	9 months.....	20 days.....	Allowed.....
New Mexico.....	None.....	4 weeks.....	Allowed.....
New York.....	180 days.....	Calendar month.....	Allowed.....
North Carolina.....	4 months.....	20 days.....	Not allowed.....
North Dakota.....	6 months.....	20 days.....	Allowed.....
Ohio.....	32 weeks.....	4 weeks.....	Allowed.....
Oklahoma.....	3 months.....	20 days.....	Allowed.....
Oregon.....	4 months.....	20 days.....	Allowed.....
Pennsylvania.....	7 months.....	20 days.....	Not allowed.....
Rhode Island.....	6 months.....	Calendar month.....	Not allowed.....
South Carolina.....	3 months.....	20 days.....	Allowed.....
South Dakota.....	6 months.....	20 days.....	Allowed.....
Tennessee.....	None.....	20 days.....	Allowed.....
Texas.....	6 months.....	20 days.....	Not allowed.....
Utah.....	20 weeks.....	20 days.....	Allowed.....
Vermont.....	23 weeks.....	4 weeks.....	Allowed.....
Virginia.....	5 months.....	4 weeks.....	Allowed.....
Washington.....	5 months.....	20 days.....	Allowed.....
West Virginia.....	6 months.....	20 days.....	Allowed.....
Wisconsin.....	8 months.....	20 days.....	Allowed.....
Wyoming.....	3 months.....	Calendar month.....	Allowed.....

*The matter of allowing holidays is left with the local boards.

The average length of the school term in the forty-two states fixing the minimum term by law is 5.7 months. It is, then, a conservative estimate to place the salaries of women employed in teaching in the rural schools of the country at \$40.00 a month, or about \$250.00 a year.

IN ILLINOIS.

The number of teachers employed in the public schools in Illinois is 28,524. Of this number 5,411 are men and 23,113 are women. During the year ending June 30, 1908, the men taught an aggregate of 40,751 months and received \$346,854.97; or an average monthly salary of \$82.13. The women taught an aggregate of 195,484 months and received \$11,877,793.76, an average of \$60.76 a month.

In ungraded schools, where the salaries are lowest, there are 11,480 teachers—3,002 men and 8,478 women. During the last year the men taught an aggregate of 19,440 months for which they were paid \$992,872.57. The women taught 60,574 months and received \$2,400,084.42. The average salary for men teaching in the ungraded schools of the State is, therefore, \$47.47 and the average salary for women in the ungraded schools is \$39.62. The following statement will show the average salaries for men and women in graded and ungraded schools, and in all grades for the years 1906, 1907 and 1908.

	1906	1907	1908
Average wages for men in graded schools	\$107 66	\$109 89	\$113 74
Average wages for women in graded schools	66 54	67 91	70 25
Average wages for men in ungraded schools	43 79	46 56	47 47
Average wages for women in ungraded schools	37 61	38 38	39 62
Average monthly wages for men	75 00	75 85	82 13
Average monthly wages for women	57 44	58 72	60 76

The most significant fact shown by this table is that the 8,478 women employed in the rural schools of Illinois receive for their services, on the average, less than \$40.00 a month. Averages, however, are often misleading. To illustrate, let us suppose that A, B, and C are employed at \$100.00, \$30.00, and \$20.00 a month, respectively. Their average monthly salary would then be \$50.00. This average gives no indication of the actual salary of any of them. Or, say that at the same salaries A is employed for ten months in the year, B for six and C for four. The average annual salary of the three would then be \$420.00. Again, this average tells us little about the real income of A, B, or C. So the economic condition of the teachers of the State is not disclosed by a statement of the average salaries they receive. We must go further and endeavor to ascertain approximately the number of teachers whose compensation is insufficient to provide the necessary means of living and the educational means and opportunities necessary to professional progress. In the determination of this question the minimum salaries paid to teachers in each county of the State may be even less enlightening than average salaries. Still, it is worth while to observe in passing that according to the reports from the various counties for the last school year the salaries of men teachers fell as low or lower than \$25.00 a month in twenty-four counties. In six counties it fell to \$20.00 a month. In seven counties the average for men was either below \$40.00 or only slightly in excess of that sum. There are only seven counties in the State which do not employ one or more men teachers for \$40.00 a month or less. The lowest salary paid to any man teacher was \$20.00 a month. The wages of women teachers fell to \$20.00 a month or less in twenty-eight counties. One county employed at least one women teacher at \$10.00 a month.

It is plain then that in Illinois there is a number of teachers who receive a mere pittance for their services. This fact of itself, even if the number is small, is sufficient to create alarm in the minds of those whose interest extends to all schools and school children of the State. It indicates that there are localities in which there are unprepared teachers, poorly instructed children, and a lack of public interest in education. This is a condition to which no citizen should be indifferent. We shall now show that the number of poorly paid teachers in the State is not small.

Five years ago a special inquiry developed the fact that 6,243 teachers in the State received less than \$40.00 a month. This number has been reduced but is still in the neighborhood of three thousand. The following table shows the number of teachers in ungraded schools and the

number of such teachers who receive less than \$40.00 a month. The first column contains the number of men teaching in ungraded schools, the second column the number of women teaching in ungraded schools, the third column the total number of teachers in ungraded schools and the fourth the number of teachers who receive less than \$40.00 a month:

Counties.	Men.	Women.	Total.	No. receiv- ing less than \$40 a mo.
Adams	48	123	171	55
Alexander	7	35	42
Bond	36	38	74	60
Boone	1	65	66	18
Brown	23	51	74	5
Bureau	24	161	185	36
Calhoun	20	13	33
Carroll	17	87	104	57
Cass	10	50	60	4
Champaign	36	169	205	6
Christian	71	68	139	5
Clark	25	93	118	12
Clay	47	43	90	42
Clinton	25	38	63	20
Coles	43	121	164	3
Cook	11	101	112	0
Crawford	49	62	111	4
Cumberland	44	68	112	22
DeKalb	10	140	150	37
DeWitt	19	70	89	4
Douglas	24	56	80	1
DuPage	4	63	67	60
Edgar	34	105	139	4
Edwards	24	23	47	19
Effingham	29	53	82	85
Fayette	68	79	147	32
Ford	8	93	101	17
Franklin	82	32	114	24
Fulton	50	147	197	56
Gallatin	32	27	59
Greene	33	55	88	22
Grundy	4	81	85	42
Hamilton	68	16	48
Hancock	78	138	216	32
Hardin	21	11	32	15
Henderson	12	53	65	1
Henry	7	177	184	134
Iroquois	21	201	224	20
Jackson	34	75	109	21
Jasper	63	86	149	40
Jefferson	68	75	142	30
Jersey	12	49	61	31
JoDavies	9	105	114	77
Johnson	50	24	74	72
Kane	4	107	111	36
Kankakee	15	125	140
Kendall	3	65	68	20
Knox	21	143	164	35
Lake	6	82	88	27
LaSalle	15	268	283	88
Lawrence	47	24	71	11
Lee	4	180	184	46
Livingston	25	233	258	26
Logan	24	84	108	1
Macon	33	86	119	0
Macoupin	38	122	160	48
Madison	20	89	109	10
Marion	39	67	106	96
Marshall	5	75	80	36
Mason	20	70	90	5
Massac	21	22	43	19
McDonough	33	138	171	35
McHenry	4	114	118	95
McLean	41	198	239	8
Menard	12	41	53	5
Mercer	13	100	113	20
Monroe	21	21	52	4

Counties.	Men.	Women.	Total.	No. receiving less than \$40 a mo.
Montgomery	46	97	143	25
Morgan	32	62	94	2
Moultrie	23	56	79	1
Ogle	27	156	183	69
Peoria	19	118	137	7
Perry	27	53	80	50
Platt	27	74	101	0
Pike	46	118	164	60
Pope	26	46	72	25
Pulaski	15	21	36	23
Putnam	3	23	26	40
Randolph	25	65	90	30
Richland	38	45	83	70
Rock Island	2	79	81	32
Saline	68	18	86	13
Sangamon	46	109	155	15
Schuyler	25	63	88	20
Scott	14	24	38	2
Shelby	68	84	152
Stark	13	50	63	38
St. Clair	64	94	158	4
Stephenson	28	115	143	60
Tazewell	28	87	115	3
Union	55	12	67	40
Vermillion	50	136	186	4
Wabash	33	12	45	9
Warren	15	104	119	5
Washington	17	63	80	39
Wayne	83	64	147	65
White	65	40	95
Whiteside	11	121	132	21
Will	9	173	182	117
Williamson	55	54	109	82
Winnebago	6	104	110	20
Woodford	16	85	101	6
Total.....	3,002	8,478	11,480	2,893

The total of column four is 2,893. Seven counties, however, do not report the number of teachers receiving less than \$40.00. Returns from these counties would certainly increase the total to something above three thousand. It is thus seen that at least 3,000 teachers in the ungraded schools of Illinois, which is 26 per cent of the total number of teachers thus employed, receive less than \$40.00 a month. How much less we can not say, but as was shown before some of them receive less than half that amount. In six of the counties reporting, all women teaching in the ungraded schools apparently receive less than \$40.00. In two of the counties the number of teachers reported as receiving less than \$40.00 is greater than the total number of teachers in the ungraded schools. Consequently it can not be said that wages of \$40.00 or less are limited to the ungraded schools.

It is obvious that in computing the wages of a teacher the yearly basis should be taken. Teachers must live throughout the vacation, and few of them add very much to their income during that period.

The average length of the school term in Illinois is 7.8 months. Obviously the average can not be so much as that in the country schools. Let us assume that it is seven and one-half months. It is certainly no more than that. At seven and one-half months in the year a teacher whose monthly salary is \$40.00 will receive \$300.00 a year. It is obvious that on that amount alone no teacher can maintain "an appropriate standard of living."

THE COST OF LIVING.

No argument will be required to show that teaching can never become a calling chosen by persons who fit themselves to teach unless the salary offered is sufficient to meet not only the individual cost of living but also the expenses of maintaining a family. Now, while a salary of \$300.00 a year is a desirable supplement to the annual income of a family which is not obliged to rely upon the wages of a teacher for its support, it is insufficient to pay the food bill of an average family, to say nothing of the bills for rent, clothing, and the other expenses of the household. The average cost of food per family in the United States in 1907 was \$374.75. This is an increase of 4.2 per cent over the cost in 1906, and of 26.3 per cent over the cost in 1896. "The increased cost of food," says a recent bulletin of the United States Bureau of Labor, "has been felt by everyone, and perhaps more keenly by employes on salaries, as the general tendency is to advance employes on salaries less rapidly than those employed by the day or week whose services are contracted for at frequent intervals."* But the cost of food is somewhat less than one-half the expenditure of the average family. A salary of \$40.00 a month for seven and one-half months in the year is consequent less than half enough to support a family. Clearly, then, at the present rate of wages we must depend largely upon unmarried women for our supply of teachers. This may not mean poor teaching, but it does mean that so long as this is the case teaching can not become a profession.

WAGES IN OTHER OCCUPATIONS.

Space need not be taken to show that the wages of teachers generally are less than those of unskilled laborers. It has been shown again and again, and by evidence which cannot be refuted, that this is the case. In many of our cities a common laborer on the streets receives more than \$50.00 a month. Hod carriers in Chicago are paid, on the average, \$16.44 a week, or more than \$65.00 a month.† It could easily be shown that the salaries of women teachers are lower on the average than those of first class stenographers and saleswomen. It would be difficult, indeed, to find a reputable occupation demanding anything above average intelligence in which the wages computed on an annual basis are not more than the wages received by the country school teacher. A woman who left the schoolroom to become a clown in a variety show is quoted as saying, "It pays better to be a member of the ballet than to be a school teacher. The school teacher has a hard time to exist on the pay she gets, but a ballet girl can make very good wages, in fact she can often make twice what a teacher can in a country school."§ With such facts in mind does not the claim of public appreciation of the work of the teacher and of public appreciation of the significance of education sound a bit hollow?

*Bulletin of the United States Bureau of Labor, No. 77, July, 1908, p. 197.

†Bulletin of the United States Bureau of Labor, No. 77, July, 1908, page 137.

§Illinois State Journal, Springfield, Ill., Thursday, October 22, 1908.

CAUSES.

There are many reasons why the salaries of teachers, especially of women teachers are low. In the first place they do not conform to the general law of wages. They are not sustained by the usual standard of living, since so many teachers do not depend upon their salaries as teachers for their entire support. Many young women teach "for experience" or to earn a little pin money in the period between school days and matrimony, and hence can afford to accept any salary that is offered. Men in country districts sometimes rely chiefly on some occupation other than teaching for their support, and hence are able and willing to accept a low wage for teaching during the months when they could not otherwise well be occupied. All this is but to say that teaching is not yet looked upon as a calling upon the same plane as the other professions, trades and occupations. The public is to blame for this. Everybody knows better than that anybody can teach school. Children, like other growing things, should be put in the hands of experts. When the public demands expert teaching it will find that the supply is small and will therefore be compelled to pay a living wage. The first great demand is to raise the qualifications of teachers. This the commission has had in mind in proposing its plan for the certification of teachers. But an increase in wages will also tend to produce that effect.

EFFECTS.

But whatever the causes may be, the effects of the present low salaries of teachers are sufficiently obvious. With salaries at the present level it would be futile to expect that young men and young women will deliberately choose teaching as a permanent calling and take the time and spend the money to make adequate preparation for a successful career in that line of work. They could not do so, no matter how much they might be so inclined. Imagine a brilliant and ambitious young man reflecting deliberately on the choice of an occupation to be followed through life. How much thought do you suppose would be given to teaching, especially to teaching in the elementary schools? We smile at the idea of his giving it serious consideration. And yet it is this teaching in the elementary schools upon which the character of our future civilization largely depends. The friends of education will never be satisfied until the business of teaching, even in the country schools, is made so attractive financially and otherwise that it will draw and hold the brilliant and ambitious. All that can be expected at present is perhaps an increase in the public recognition and compensation of the teacher so that the number of those who are repelled by existing conditions may be somewhat reduced. But this much at least should be given.

As might generally be expected as an effect of the prevailing salaries paid to teachers the number of men engaged in teaching is not only relatively small but is rapidly decreasing. There are only about 3,000 men teachers in the elementary schools. During the last thirty years the percentage of men in the schools has decreased from approximately 28 per cent to approximately 19 per cent. There are counties in the

State which have only one, two or three men in the ungraded schools. There are five counties with only four men in such schools and there are seventeen counties with fewer than ten. The following table will show the decrease in the number and percentage of men in the schools of the State and the corresponding increase in the number of women during the last ten years.

Year Ending.	Men.	Women.	Percentage of men.
June 30, 1898	7,324	18,911	27.92
1899	7,309	19,312	27.46
1900	7,273	19,715	27.69
1901	7,164	20,117	26.26
1902	6,800	20,386	25.02
1903	6,505	29,595	24.00
1904	6,248	21,223	22.74
1905	6,137	21,723	22.03
1906	5,985	25,193	21.00
1907	5,571	22,512	19.83
1908	5,411	23,113	18.97

Now the fact that teaching is, and is becoming more and more, the work of women is not altogether to be deplored, for women may be and are often the best of teachers. But whatever may be thought of the excellence of their work in the school room, there are few well informed persons who would contend that the number of men in the schools should not be relatively greater than it is now. At all events, it is clear that while the great majority of teachers are unmarried women the teaching force of the State must be a shifting and impermanent one, so that teaching can not possibly become an established profession like law or medicine. Higher wages would increase at once the number of men teachers and thus tend to put the work of teaching in the way of becoming what it should be, namely, a calling to which men and women may devote their lives.

REMEDIES.

It is supposed that sufficient evidence has been presented to convince any impartial mind that teachers are under paid. Much more evidence could be advanced if it were thought necessary. This being the case, we may now turn our attention to the discovery of the best method of increasing the pay of teachers.

The first question which presents itself in this consideration is, may not the whole matter be safely left to the law of supply and demand? The answer to this question is an unhesitating and a most emphatic, No! Even if the slow operation of an economic law could be depended upon to bring about in time a better condition with respect to teachers' wages, we could not afford to await its action. Time is always precious, but never more so than in education. The education of the children of the State is in a very true sense a matter of life and death. We want improved conditions and better teaching, not merely in future times but

now—for our own children as well as for our children's children. But the economic law of supply and demand can not be relied upon in this case. Teaching is expert service. The employers of teachers are not as a rule expert judges of this service. Accordingly a teacher will not be paid in the direct ratio of his efficiency and it is useless to encourage him to think that this will be the case. He will as a rule be paid "what is customary" and, in certain cases at least, "what is customary" will be far below a living wage. The State demands that every child within its border be given "a good common school education." This means of necessity good teaching, and for good teaching an adequate compensation should be rendered. The time has come when parsimonious directors should no longer be permitted to defeat the will of the State.

The salaries of teachers are in a different class from the wages of ordinary labor. The product of the laborer is a commodity which is sold, or to be sold, at a profit. If profits are high employers are aware of it and strive to increase the amount of commodities produced. They invest more capital. There is an increased demand for labor and this tends to advance wages. But the profit derived from the work of the teacher is not immediately apparent. It accrues gradually and to the children educated and the State, not directly to the employers of the teacher. Hence the teacher, much less than the ordinary wage laborer; can depend upon the selfishness of those who employ him to enter as an element in advancing his salary.

If the economic law of supply and demand could be relied upon anywhere to bring about a just and satisfactory adjustment of wages it seems that it would be in the case of common labor. But the history of wages in the various productive industries shows that even here it has not been depended upon by the laborers. They have combined with the distinct and definite purpose of promoting their compensation, and in many cases they have succeeded.

Inasmuch as the trades-union method of raising wages has been effective it would not be strange if teachers should organize for the same purpose. "If the various trades in this country, by organization, can fix wages, teachers may be compelled to resort to heroic measures to secure wages which are commensurate with the time and money put into preparation and in keeping with the dignity of the teaching profession." So says a superintendent of one of our northern states, but he correctly declares that the formation of unions among teachers, after the fashion of labor unions, is repugnant to the people. The fact that the public generally would decry an organized effort on the part of teachers themselves to raise their salaries is a good reason why the public should endeavor through legislation to secure for the teacher a living wage.

This brings us to a consideration of a third method of increasing the compensation of teachers, namely, the establishment by law of a minimum wage or schedule of wages below which the amount paid a teacher by the school authorities of a city, state, or county, as the case may be, may not be reduced. This principle of a minimum salary for teachers has been widely applied both in this country and abroad. A brief account and régime of the legislation in which it has found expression will now be given.

MINIMUM SALARY LEGISLATION.

IN THE UNITED STATES.

Laws providing definitely for a minimum salary for teachers in the public schools have been enacted in eight of the states, namely, Indiana, Maryland, New Jersey, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Pennsylvania and West Virginia. In some of the other states, as for instance in California, Colorado and Oregon, a minimum salary is established in effect by legal provisions in regard to the apportionment and use of the school funds. California provides that "all the state school money and not less than sixty per cent of the county school money shall be applied exclusively to the payment of teachers' salaries of the primary and grammar schools."* This practically fixes the minimum salary of the teachers of the state at about sixty dollars a month. Colorado requires its county superintendents in estimating the amount of money needed per capita to enable each school district in the county to maintain a public school four months in each year to base their estimates on an allowance to each teacher of \$40.00 per month.† In Oregon eighty-five per cent of the amount received by any district from the county school tax and the irreducible school fund must be applied to the payment of teachers' salaries.§ So also in Virginia the proceeds of the state and county school funds must be used exclusively for the payment of teachers. Such provisions it will readily be seen may operate practically to establish a minimum salary throughout the state.

The agitation for the enactment of minimum salary laws is of course much wider than is indicated by the number of states in which there has been some form of legislation on the subject. Such laws have been recommended in many of the states either by the state superintendent or the State Teachers' Association, or both, and minimum salary bills have been introduced in the legislature of several of the states but have failed of passage. Among these states are Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Virginia and Wisconsin. In Minnesota the State Educational Association appointed a committee of seven to make an investigation upon the status of teachers' salaries and living expenses. This committee in its report, made in 1906, said that "A wisely drawn minimum salary law is the one remaining important

* School Law of California, Sec. 1622, page 42.

† Annotated School Laws, Colorado, 1907, Sec. 186, page 195.

§ School Laws of Oregon, Sec. 27, page 19.

legislative act in Minnesota, to make the former acts effective.”* The State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Nebraska, in an address before the superintendents and principals’ association at Lincoln, in October, 1906, spoke as follows: “From a careful study of this question I am convinced that for grade and rural school teachers a minimum salary schedule would not only raise the salaries and qualifications of all teachers, but that the public would be repaid many times over for the extra expenses necessary.”† So also the commissioner of public schools of Rhode Island in his report for 1906, in speaking of the diversity in teachers’ salaries in different parts of that state, said that “A minimum salary law with state aid would effectively improve the situation and, in solving the problem of low salaries, would make it easier to maintain a proper standard of the required qualifications of the teachers,”§ and definitely recommended the passage of a minimum salary law to equalize the compensation of teachers. In Wisconsin a minimum wage law for teachers in the rural districts of the state was discussed and recommended by the state superintendent in his report for 1906,¶ and in Virginia minimum wage legislation has been recommended both by the state superintendent and by the State Teachers’ Association.

The principle of a minimum wage for teachers is also recognized and practically applied in the hundreds of cities of the country which have a fixed schedule of teachers’ wages. The city of New York, however, is operating its schools under a minimum wage provision enacted by the legislature of the state. This law which went into effect in 1899 is known as the Ahern Law. It originally provided that the board of education should pay not less than certain specified sums to teachers of specified grades. The law was amended in 1900 and also in 1903, but the principle has not been affected. The schedule of salaries in force is elaborate and need not here be given. It is sufficient to say that no teacher in New York can be employed for less than six hundred dollars a year, while the actual average yearly salary of kindergarten and grade teachers is \$960 for one class and \$1,556 for another. Concerning the effect of the law Superintendent Wm. H. Maxwell of New York City writes, “It has worked upon the whole satisfactorily. For six years after its adoption it operated not only to raise materially the salaries of the teachers, which in my opinion had been much too low, but to stop all agitation of the salary question among teachers.”

West Virginia.—West Virginia was the first of the states to fix a maximum of salary for teachers. On March 15, 1882, more than twenty-six years ago, the legislature of the state passed a bill providing that teachers holding a first grade certificate should be paid not less than \$25.00 per month, those holding certificates of the second grade not less than \$22.00 per month, and those holding certificates of the third grade not less than

* Fourteenth Biennial Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Minnesota, 1905-06; page 459.

† Nineteenth Biennial Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Nebraska, 1906, page 276.

§ Thirty-seventh Annual Report, Commissioner of Public Schools, Rhode Island, 1906, page 88.

¶ Twelfth Biennial Report, Department of Public Instruction, Wisconsin, 1905-06, pages 30-31.

\$18.00 per month. This bill has been amended from time to time, so that the law now reads, "Teachers having certificates of the grade of number one, shall be paid not less than \$40.00 per month; those holding certificates of the grade of number two, not less than \$35.00 per month; and those holding certificates of the grade of number three not less than \$30.00 per month." All applicants for teachers' certificates are required to pass an examination in the following subjects: Orthography, reading, penmanship, arithmetic, English grammar and language, physiology and hygiene, United States history, State history, geography, civil government, and the theory and art of teaching, with additional subjects for certificates good in graded or high schools. A first grade certificate is granted to applicants who attain a general average of ninety in an examination on these subjects and not lower than seventy-five in any one branch. A second grade certificate is granted upon a general average of eighty with no grade lower than sixty-eight; and a third grade certificate is issued to applicants who attain a general average of seventy with no grade lower than sixty. Thus the wages of teachers are fixed upon an examination percentage basis.

The action of West Virginia in this matter was occasioned by the parsimony of boards of education whose views "were entirely too economical and contracted to suit the progressive spirit of the age." It was found that some of the boards of education were not able to provide for the additional outlay necessary to pay the salaries required by law. The state was therefore led to set apart from the general school fund of the state fifty thousand dollars to aid the weaker districts in paying the minimum salaries and in maintaining a six months term of school. The effect of the law has been eminently satisfactory. The average salaries throughout the state are considerably above the minimum prescribed by law. This is the testimony of the state superintendent of free schools, the Hon. Thos. C. Miller, who writes the commission that "the minimum salary law has produced good results in this state and while the average salary is considerably above the minimum, our enactment has prevented many districts from reducing wages below a respectable standard."

Indiana.—A minimum wage law was enacted in Indiana in 1901. It was amended in 1903 and again in 1907. This law at present reads as follows: "The daily wage of teachers for teaching in the public schools of the state shall not be less, in the case of beginning teachers, than an amount determined by multiplying $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents by the general average given such teacher in his highest grade of license at the time of contracting. For teachers having had a successful experience for one school year of not less than six months, the daily wages shall not be less than an amount determined by multiplying three cents by the general average given such teacher on his highest grade of license at the time of contracting. For teachers having had a successful experience of three or more school years of not less than six months each, the daily wages shall not be less than an amount determined by multiplying $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents by the general average given such teacher on his highest grade of license at the time of contracting. All teachers now exempt or hereafter exempt from examination shall be paid, as daily wages for teaching in the public

schools, not less than an amount determined by multiplying three cents by the general average of scholarship and success given such teacher: *Provided*, that the grade of scholarship accounted in each case be that given at the teacher's last examination, and that the grade of success accounted be that of the teacher's term last preceding the date of contracting; *and, providing, further*, that two per cent shall be added to the teacher's general average of scholarship and success for attending the county institute the full number of days, and that said two per cent shall be added to the average scholarship of beginning teachers."*

In the year following the enactment of the original law in Indiana the superintendent of public instruction of that state attributed the rise of wages which had taken place in the state to the operation of the law and wrote, "it would be difficult to set out all of the advantages of the wage law—it has increased the demand for male teachers, placed the minimum wage more or less upon the basis of scholarship and successful experience; protected good teachers against competition with incompetence and given county superintendents the legal support they have needed in the careful and accurate grading of teachers' manuscripts."† Speaking of the law as it now stands, the present State Superintendent of Indiana, the Hon. Fassett A. Cotton, in a letter to the commission, writes as follows: "Our minimum teachers' wage law is working well throughout Indiana. I think Indiana has never had a law which has been so instrumental in arousing professional interest as has the late minimum wage law. The effect throughout the teaching body in Indiana is to stimulate the teachers to a greater activity in properly equipping themselves for the responsible position of teaching. There are now 1,860 students in the Indiana State Normal School and the private normal schools have an increased attendance. The colleges and universities which have been accredited by the State Board of Education also have an increase in attendance in the professional departments."

Indiana also provides state aid for the weaker townships and towns that are not able to raise a sufficient amount from local taxation to carry on their schools for the minimum term and pay their teachers according to the revised minimum law.

Pennsylvania.—Pennsylvania passed a salary act in 1903 fixing the minimum salary at \$35.00 per month. In 1907 the law was amended to read as follows: "The salary of common school teachers, in districts of this commonwealth receiving state appropriation, shall be no less than \$50.00 per month in all cases where the teacher holds a professional, permanent or normal school certificate, and has had two years' practice, and presents a certificate of proficiency in said practice, for said time, from the superintendent in charge of said teacher. The minimum salary shall be \$40.00 for all teachers holding certificates of less grade than required under section one of this act. And that the state shall pay the amount of increase in all salaries that are provided for under this act,

* School Law of Indiana, Sec. 37, page 261.

† Report, Superintendent Public Instruction, Indiana, 1902, page 10.

and over the amount of salary paid in each school district in this commonwealth in one thousand nine hundred and six, and said increase shall be paid out of the increased appropriation for the common schools."*

The testimony in regard to the operation and effects of the law of Pennsylvania is similar to that offered in regard to the minimum salary acts of other states. The state superintendent of Pennsylvania, in his report for 1907, say that "no other legislation has reached the remotest districts of the state like the minimum salary act. It will take away from the general school appropriation \$856,000.00. The effect has been to raise the compensation of teachers more nearly to a living basis. It is possible that some schools will not be better taught by reason of the advance of teachers' salaries, but the tonic effect of the increase will be found throughout the entire school system. It will necessitate an advance in districts in which domestics were earning better wages than those in charge of the schools."† Again, in a letter to the commission, he writes, "the minimum salary law raised the wages of teachers in many rural and in some urban school districts. It has enabled teachers to go to normal schools and is toning up the entire school system."

New Jersey.—In New Jersey the movement for an increase in teachers' salaries originated in Jersey City in 1897. At that time a bill prescribing the lowest salary which could be paid to each class of teachers employed was introduced in the legislature. It made no progress, however, not even being reported by the legislative committee to which it had been referred. In the following year, 1898, according to an account of the New Jersey legislature furnished the committee of the National Educational Association on Salaries, Tenure and Pensions of Public School Teachers in the United States, by Mr. Henry Snyder, superintendent of the schools of Jersey City, from which the synopsis of New Jersey legislation is taken, a similar bill was introduced with no better result. "In 1900, a bill fixing a minimum salary schedule, in which the salaries fixed were considerably larger than those contained in the bills of 1897 and 1898, was prepared by the friends of the teachers, and earnestly advocated by the mayor and the board of education. This bill became a law. In general, it prescribed the minimum salaries to be paid to all teachers. The bill originated in Jersey City, and was intended for the teachers of that city. In order, however, that there might be no constitutional objection to it, it had to be made general, in order that it might apply to all school districts of the state. As most of these were hostile to a bill of this character, a referendum clause was inserted in the bill, in accordance with which the provisions of the bill had to be submitted to a vote of the people in any school district desiring to adopt the measure, at any general election. In accordance with the intention of those who advocated the bill it was submitted to the voters of Jersey City in the spring election of 1900. It was adopted by a very large majority. Since then we have operated under the schedule provided by the act. Since this act was passed a new general school law for the whole state has been adopted. This general school law has embodied the provisions of our special salary act described above. It is therefore

* Pennsylvania School Law, page 75.

† Report, Superintendent Public Instruction, Pennsylvania, 1907, pages 7-8.

possible for any school district in the state to adopt the advanced schedules provided therein." Jersey City is the only city which has adopted the minimum schedule. The provision of the New Jersey law applies only to teachers of graded schools. The minima established depends upon experience. For assistant teachers in primary and grammar schools and kindergartens the lowest salaries are from \$408.00 per annum to \$936.00 per annum.*

Maryland.—The minimum salary act of Maryland was enacted in 1904. It provided that "No white teacher regularly employed in a public school of the state of Maryland having an average attendance of fifteen pupils or more shall receive as a salary less than \$300.00 per school year." Concerning this act the superintendent of public education in Maryland writes, in a letter dated 1906 and reprinted in the Minnesota school report, 1905-6, page 553, "The minimum salary law passed for Maryland in 1904 has had the effect to increase the salaries of 1,500 teachers; this increase varied from 5 per cent to 30 per cent, and, in my opinion, has had a most salutary effect. The school boards of the state have pretty generally endorsed the features of the law. In some counties where the county school tax rate had to be raised, there was naturally some complaint, but these were few. The main argument in opposition to the law was to the increase of the state tax from 17 to 22 cents (i. e., 1.7 to 2.2 mills.) There ought to be an addition to the present minimum salary law—another minimum of \$450.00 to such elementary teachers as hold first class certificates; the class of certificates in this state is determined by the power and efficiency of the teacher." This recommendation of the Maryland superintendent has now become the law. The last general assembly of that state amended the original act so that at present the schedule of salaries for capable and experienced teachers is as follows: For teachers holding a first class certificate and having three years teaching experience in the state not less than \$350.00; five years \$400.00, and eight years \$450.00. For teachers holding second class certificates but who have eight years' experience the minimum salary has been raised to \$350.00.

North Dakota.—In North Dakota the law provides that the district school board "shall grade the salaries of teachers for the district in accordance with the grade of certificate and no teacher holding a certificate of a lower grade shall receive a salary equal to or in excess of that paid to a teacher holding a certificate of a higher grade in the same district; provided, further, that no teacher holding a second grade certificate shall receive less than \$45.00 per month on and after the passage and taking effect of this act. And nothing in this section shall be construed to mean that teachers holding the same grade of certificate must necessarily receive the same wages." This law was passed in 1905. In regard to the effects of this law, State Superintendent Stockwell writes, "The minimum wage law has had a tendency to keep better qualified teachers in the work, also to stimulate those seeking employment to enter the field of teaching. The rural schools of North Dakota are certainly in better condition than they were a few years ago. The greatest draw-

* New Jersey School Laws, 1905, Article 26, pages 97-102.

back to our schools is the fact that there is so little permanency in our teaching force. The average length of time that teachers are employed in this state is about three years. The minimum salary law has a tendency to increase the length of time that people will follow teaching for the reason that it is now a little better, financially, than some years ago."

Ohio.—In 1906 Ohio passed what is known as the Duvall Law. It provides for a minimum salary of \$40.00 per month for eight months, with state aid under certain conditions. The law reads as follows: "That no person shall be employed to teach in any public school in Ohio for less than \$40.00 a month and that, when any school district in Ohio has not sufficient money to pay its teachers \$40.00 per month for eight months of the year, after the board of education of said district has made the maximum school levy authorized by law, three-fourths of which shall be for the tuition fund, then said school district is hereby authorized to receive from the state treasury sufficient money to make up this deficiency. Any board of education having such a deficit shall make affidavits to the county auditor, who shall send a certified statement of the facts to the state auditor. The state auditor shall issue a voucher on the state treasurer in favor of the treasurer of said school district for the full amount of the deficit in the tuition fund. No district shall be entitled to state aid, as provided in section one of this act, unless the number of persons of school age in said district shall be at least twenty times the number of teachers employed in said district."

"The effect of the law," says the state commissioner of education of Ohio, "has been manifest in a very marked increase in the monthly wages of teachers as will be seen in the following comparison given in my last report which has not as yet been received from the binders."

	1906	1907
Township Elementary Schools—		
Men	\$40	\$44
Women	37	42
Township High Schools—		
Men	70	72
Women	50	53
Seperate Districts, Elementary Schools—		
Men	48	52
Women	39	43
Seperate Districts, High Schools—		
Men	78	83
Women	57	62

In another letter the commissioner explains that the law has brought about a degree of dissatisfaction on account of the fact that the school funds which can be raised in some of the districts by the maximum tax levy of twelve mills is insufficient to increase the salary of all the teachers to \$40.00 per month without reducing the salary of the superintendent or principal employed in the same school. He says also that as the law has been in effect for only two years it is perhaps a little early to determine what the real lasting effects of the law will be upon the educational interests of the state.

North Carolina.—In 1907 North Carolina enacted a law which provides that the minimum salary of a teacher holding a five-year state

certificate shall be \$35.00 per month, and that the holder of a high school certificate shall receive not less than \$40.00 a month. The same law provides also a maximum salary for certain grades of teachers.

In foreign countries.—Among European countries which have adopted minimum salary schedules for the payment of teachers are France, Germany, Sweden and Italy. "It is worthy of note," says Mr. Raymond W. Sies in the *Educational Review* for January, 1908, "that France and Germany, which are far in the lead in education, likewise take the lead in the matters of placing the compensation of teachers on a stable basis and of setting the limits below which no amount of false economy may reduce it. In these two countries teachers are civil officers responsible to the state, and as such they are paid definite salaries by the state. These constitute the legal minimum salaries. In addition to them the communities are privileged to pay such local salaries as they are able or as they choose, a privilege of which the larger communities are glad to take advantage, particularly in Germany, in order to secure the services of superior talent." Mr. Sies gives also the salary schedules in Prussia and France with some comments upon the situation in those countries. "In Prussia," he says, "which constitutes two-thirds of the German Empire, if no recent alterations have been made, the minimum salaries of regular men teachers in the elementary schools for the masses vary from \$180.00 per year to something over \$400.00 according to length of service and rank. Those of women, who comprise a small proportion of the teachers of Germany even in the elementary schools, are fixed at figures somewhat lower. In 1905 the salaries of regular men teachers in the French schools for the masses, the elementary primary schools, and the superior primary or high schools, varies from \$400.00 to \$600.00 in the latter, likewise according to length of service and rank. As in the case of Prussia the salary schedules for women in the same schools are somewhat lower. In both countries the compensation of the teachers in the schools for the classes, of which the gymnasia in Germany and the lycées in France are the best known types, is also fixed at minimum figures by salary schedules established and paid by the state. The same is true of the compensation of all directors or principals. In both cases the salaries are of course made decidedly better than those just given. Before passing judgment upon the adequacy of these minimum salaries of France and Germany several facts should be taken into consideration. The following are the chief of these. (1) The standard of living is distinctly lower in France and Germany than in the United States. (2) Teachers in both countries in accordance with law are provided by their communities with free residences or the equivalent in money, in addition to their salaries. (3) Those teachers who withdraw from the services after a specified time by reason of ill health or age or other disability are legally entitled to substantial pensions the amount thereof varying with length of previous service and other considerations, and on the death of a teacher his widow and children are pensioned according to fixed regulations. In this connection we should take note of the fact that the legal provisions for free residence or the money equivalent and

for pensions partake of the nature of legal regulation of the minimum compensation of the teachers. The money equivalent of free residence may with perfect propriety be added to the minimum salary schedules throughout, which would increase them from ten to twenty per cent, but strictly speaking the pensions are not salaries."

In Sweden the common schools are primarily the concern of the parish. They receive assistance from the state, however, and are under the superintendence of state and ecclesiastical authorities. The salaries of regular teachers are apportioned in five gradations. A public school teacher with a fixed appointment can be removed only upon judicial trial and sentence.* In Italy the state has fixed the minimum salary of rural teachers in the lower elementary schools (the first, second and third school years) in communes of less than two thousand inhabitants at \$140.00 a year for men and \$112.00 a year for women. The schedule adopted provides higher minima for teachers in rural communes of larger population and still higher for teachers in the lower and higher elementary town schools. The salaries fixed by the national government may be supplemented by the communes.†

OBJECTIONS.

The main objections to minimum salary legislation must now be considered.

The first objection that will probably suggest itself is that inasmuch as the weaker districts will require state aid to enable them to pay the salaries required by law, it will impose too large a financial burden upon the state adopting such legislation. Undoubtedly there are in most of the states many districts which could not possibly provide a sufficient amount by taxation to pay minimum salary wages to teachers, but it is just these districts which, if education is to be regarded as a state function, should receive assistance in their effort to provide a good common school education for their children.

In those states which have enacted minimum salary laws state assistance to the poorer districts is provided. In Indiana, for instance, the school law declares that when a school corporation has levied the highest amount of taxes authorized by law and is yet unable to maintain its public schools for the legal minimum term and pay its teacher the legal minimum wage, it shall receive from the state the amount necessary to maintain the schools for the minimum legal term. This law has been declared by the state superintendent of Indiana to be proving itself "timely and wise." The amount of state aid thus required in 1906 was \$30,536.38. The laws of West Virginia and Ohio bearing upon this subject were quoted in a preceding division of this report. The states with minimum salary laws, however, are not the only states which provide assistance from the state treasury for the maintenance of schools in the poorer districts. The principle has wide recognition. If education is to be regarded as a state function, and it is and has been so

* Report, Commissioner of Education, 1904, Vol. I, Chap. 11.

† Report, Commissioner of Education, 1906, Vol. I, pp. 80-81.

regarded in this country from the beginning, the state has the right to prescribe a minimum amount of education which every child may receive. And when it does fix that amount it ought to assume the corresponding duty of assisting the township or the district which, after taxing itself to the limit, is still unable to provide that minimum.

It must be admitted, then, that minimum salary legislation requires the state to spend more money for educational purposes. But money expended to give teachers a living wage would be money well spent. Teachers would respond to the increased recognition demanded by the higher wage and the public would be in a position to demand of them increased qualifications.

Another objection to fixing the minimum salary of teachers by the State is that boards of education and boards of directors will regard the salary fixed as an authorized rating of the value of teaching and the wages of all teachers alike will tend toward the minimum allowed. This is a reasonable objection and in all probability it will have that effect on the minds of some of those who employ teachers. But it is more probable that in those districts in which the salaries are now above the minimum that they are practically fixed either by custom or by the present estimate of the community with respect to the value of teaching. In such districts salaries will not be affected by minimum legislation. The decisive answer to this objection, however, is that the states which have enacted minimum legislation the effect suggested has not been produced. If the reader will turn back to the description of the minimum wage laws in the various states, and the declaration of the state superintendents in regard to the operation of these laws, he will not be troubled by this objection.

Still another question is raised in this connection, and that is would not a minimum salary law place a premium upon incompetency? Would not the smaller and weaker school districts be likely to prefer that their school authorities employ teachers of limited attainment, teachers holding second grade certificates, for instance, rather than those holding first grade certificates? It may be that in some instances this also will be the case, but in connection with the recommendation of the commission in regard to a minimum salary law it has also recommended in its plan of certification, as has already been pointed out, that the standard of qualifications of teachers be raised. The two recommendations should be considered together. The commission believes that any teacher who meets the standard of requirements for either class of certificates is entitled to the wages prescribed. The interest of the community in its own public schools must be relied upon to determine whether the one class or the other shall be employed.

There are two or three other objections of a doctrinaire nature which it may be worth while briefly to consider. A stock objection to almost every sort of advanced legislation is that it is unconstitutional. If the constitution stood in the way of necessary legislation, the situation would make valid an objection to the constitution, not to the legislation itself. The constitution which does not allow freedom for all legislation essential to the well-being of the state is a constitution which obviously

should be amended. But happily in most cases minimum salary legislation is plainly in accordance with the State Constitution if it is not enjoined by it. The Constitution of Illinois, for instance, expressly declares that "the General Assembly shall provide a thorough and efficient system of free schools, whereby all children of this State may receive a good common school education." But with 253 districts unable within the present limit of taxation to maintain a six months school and with other districts unwilling to pay the wages necessary to secure a competent teacher the school system of Illinois can not be said to be in any complete sense either thorough or efficient. The Constitution leaves to the General Assembly discretion as to the means to be employed to increase the thoroughness and efficiency of the system. The commission is of the opinion that minimum salary legislation is at the present time a necessary means to secure the desired end. Furthermore, if minimum salary legislation were unconstitutional it would in all probability have been so declared by some of the courts of the eight different states in which such legislation has been enacted. But thus far this has not been done, nor does it seem likely that any court will so decide. Courts themselves recognize the principle that the safety of the people is the highest law. This objection may then be dismissed without further consideration.

Again, it may be said that the legislation proposed is "class legislation." This in one sense is true. Teachers are a class. They are a class of public servants. But so are county superintendents and other elective and appointive officials. The minimum amount that may be paid to county superintendents is prescribed by law, as are also the salaries of the great majority of public officers. Why, then, should a law fixing the minimum salary of teachers be declared obnoxious on the ground that it is class legislation? If it is class legislation in the one case it is class legislation in the other. It is illogical to oppose a minimum salary law for those who teach and to favor such a law for those who supervise. The fact is, to call the legislation proposed class legislation does not constitute a valid objection. There is no necessary principle of legislation involved in the matter. The only question to determine is will a minimum salary law increase the standard of teaching and promote the efficiency of the schools.

MINIMUM SALARIES PROPOSED BY THE COMMISSION.

As to the salaries to be paid to the teachers of the State the commission recommends the enactment of a law providing that the minimum wage of teachers holding a second grade county certificate shall be \$45.00 per month or \$315.00 a year; and that the minimum wage for teachers holding a first grade county certificate shall be \$55.00 a month or \$385.00 a year. As a necessary supplement to this provision in regard to salaries the commission recommends that all the districts which, after levying the maximum school tax permitted by law, are un-

able to pay these minimum salaries, and maintain their schools for the proposed terms, shall receive from the State the assistance necessary to enable them to do so.

In the attempt to prepare a bill to provide for minimum salaries, however, the commission has encountered two very serious difficulties. The first of these is its inability with the statistics at hand to determine even approximately, not to say exactly, the extent to which expenses for school maintenance would be increased by such a law, and, second, its lack of information with respect to how many districts in the State would be unable with the maximum tax levy allowed by law to pay their teachers the minimum wages prescribed. Minimum salaries involve not merely an increase in school taxes but also the principle of State aid for the weaker districts. A bill to provide for minimum salaries should, therefore, be accompanied by a statement showing at least approximately the additional amount of revenue which would need to be raised and also the amount of State aid required to carry the proposed law into effect. This statement the commission is unable to make, though it has made an effort to collect the necessary data. Without more time than is now at its disposal the commission will be unable to assemble all the essential facts upon which to base a definite proposal for legislation in regard to increasing the salaries of teachers.

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- Sies, R. W.—Legal regulation of minimum salaries for teachers. *Educational Review*, 35:10-21. (January, 1908.)
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Wisconsin State Teachers' Association—Teachers' wages and cost of living; an investigation pertaining to the remuneration of teachers in the state of Wisconsin as related to the cost of living and the efficiency of the teaching service. *Wisconsin Public Instruction Bulletin of Information*, 11. 1904.

NOTE.—For assistance in preparing the foregoing bibliography the commission is indebted to the New York State Library. Many additional references may be found in the *Educational Review*, January, 1907.

THE RESTORATION OF THE TWO MILL TAX.

The first free school law of Illinois, passed January 15, 1855, provided for the levy and assessment of two mills upon each dollar's valuation of all the taxable property in the State for the support of common schools. As revised in 1872 the law declared that "the common school fund of this State shall consist of the proceeds of a two mill tax, to be levied upon each dollar's valuation of the property in the State, annually, until otherwise provided by law," etc. On May 3, 1873, the act to provide the necessary revenue for state purposes provided that there should be levied "for State school purposes, to be designated State School Fund (in lieu of the two mill tax therefor) \$1,000,000 annually." The same amount has been appropriated for each year since that time. For the reasons now to be given the commission respectfully advises and recommends the striking out of the provision in section 189 of the general school law, "until otherwise provided by law," in order that the law may provide that the State appropriation for the support of schools may consist hereafter, as it did immediately prior to 1873, of the proceeds of a two mill tax levied upon the equalized assessed value of all the property of the State.

Because of the practice begun in 1873 of "otherwise" providing by law for the amount appropriated by the State for the support of schools, the State school fund has remained, as before pointed out, at the amount then fixed, namely, \$1,000,000. Thirty-six years have passed. During that time the population of the State has more than doubled. The school population has increased almost one hundred per cent. The wealth of the State has quadrupled. School expenses have multiplied four and one-half times, but the share of the State in the support of the schools has remained the same. The following table, although the figures are not altogether reliable, will show with sufficient clearness the growth of the State's needs of educational facilities, and its rapid increase in its ability to pay for them, since it adopted the unfortunate practice of limiting its appropriation for school purposes to \$1,000,000.

Year.	Total population.	School population.	True valuation of property.	Equalized assessment.	School expenditures.	District taxes.	State appropriation.
1870	2,539,891	862,624	\$ 2,121,680,759	\$ 510,886,683	\$ 6,881,537 62	\$ 4,780,988	\$1,000,000
1873	*2,700,000	909,828	2,500,000,000	1,355,401,517	7,655,268 32	5,664,587	1,000,000
1880	3,077,871	1,010,851	3,210,000,000	786,616,394	7,531,942 00	5,735,478	1,000,000
1890	3,826,331	1,096,700	5,066,751,719	808,892,782	11,645,126 00	8,828,120	1,000,000
1900	4,821,550	1,362,700	6,976,476,400	809,733,406	17,757,145 00	15,909,436	1,000,000
1903	5,319,150	1,445,851	13,816,556,19*	1,095,681,557	22,823,191 00	20,173,619	1,000,000
1908	*5,800,000	1,500,066	10,000,000,000	1,283,500,487	32,227,605 06	1,000,000

*Estimated.

†1901.

Although the change from a two mill tax to the appropriation of a lump sum has proven to be exceedingly unfortunate for the schools, it was originally made on the recommendation of no less a friend of the schools than Newton Bateman himself. In his report for 1871-2 Bateman recommended "that the designation of a particular rate of school tax to be levied by the Auditor for the support of common schools, be discontinued and dispensed with, and that, in lieu thereof, a specific annual sum be appropriated by the General Assembly for the support of schools."* If Newton Bateman could have anticipated that as a result of this recommendation the State appropriation for schools would have increased only by \$100,000 in forty years, he would have stood aghast at what would have appeared to be his own want of foresight. Evidently he never dreamed that "the specific annual sum" to be appropriated would not increase from year to year so as to correspond approximately to the increase of a two mill tax, or so as to exceed it. In the same paragraph in which he recommends the discontinuance of the earlier method of providing the State's share of the school expenses he recommended "that the amount of common school revenue raised directly by the State, be largely increased, so that the local district school taxes may be proportionately diminished, and the burdens and benefits of the school system, financially considered, more nearly equalized." And he concludes his recommendation by declaring that in his opinion the doubling of the sum then appropriated would prove a wise and beneficial measure.

Why, then, was the two mill tax dispensed with? Aside from the convenience of appropriating a lump sum, and the further convenience of being able to anticipate with some certainty the amount of revenue available, there was evidently some fear on the part of those who desired a constantly increasing appropriation that under the loose and arbitrary methods of assessment then in vogue the revenues from the two mill tax might decrease. The equalized assessed valuation of the property of the State in 1873, as shown in the table just given, was \$1,355,401,317. It was considerably higher than it has ever been since. It declined with varying fluctuations until 1898 at which time it was \$778,474,910. The amount derived from the two mill tax when Bateman recommended the change was \$900,000. The appropriation of a million dollars was a considerable increase, and was no doubt hailed as a great victory by Bateman and all other friends of the schools. The following is a statement of the income derived from the two mill tax for the years 1856-1873, at which time the practice of appropriating \$1,000,000 annually was adopted:

*Ninth Biennial Report, Superintendent Public Instruction, Illinois, 1871-2, p. 229.

Year.	Assessed valuation.	Income from 2 mill tax.	Year.	Assessed valuation.	Income from 2 mill tax.
1856	\$349,951,372 00	\$906,899 51	1865	\$ 362,327,906 00	\$ 693,000 00
1857	407,477,367 00	660,000 00	1866	410,795,376 00	750,000 00
1858	403,140,321 00	743,000 00	1867	504,683,553 00	750,000 00
1859	386,702,043 00	763,231 00	1868	474,480,877 00	960,600 00
1860	367,227,742 00	738,183 00	1869	489,004,775 00	No report.
1861	330,823,749 00	678,751 00	1870	480,664,068 00	885,120 00
1862	312,924,349 00	600,000 00	1871	505,676,311 00	900,000 00
1863	331,999,871 00	600,000 00	1872	510,886,683 00	900,000 00
1864	336,877,837 00	660,000 00	1873	1,355,401,317 00	1,000,000 00

From this statement it will be seen not only that the proceeds of the two mill tax were a variable quantity, but also that the assessed valuation of the real and personal property of the State was also subject to strange fluctuations. It will be observed too that in 1868 on an assessed valuation of \$474,480,877 the income from the two mill tax was the same as in 1872 on an assessed valuation of \$510,886,683. In 1873 the assessed valuation increased to two and one-half times what it was in 1872. On this new basis of taxation the two and one-half mill tax, making due allowance for the usual abatements, would have amounted to at least \$2,500,000. But from 1873 to 1899, the time at which the assessment was fixed at one-fifth of the total value, the basis of taxation fluctuated with a general decline until in 1898 it amounted to only \$778,474,910, on which the two mill tax would have probably amounted to \$1,500,000. If levied on the present assessed valuation of the property of the State, which is \$1,263,500,487, the proceeds of a two mill tax, after making allowance for abatements, would amount to a sum approximately \$2,500,000.

It may be surprising to learn that at one time the State appropriation for schools was ten times as much on the dollar as at present. By an "Act providing for the establishment of free schools," approved January 15, 1825, it was provided that there should be appropriated, for the encouragement and support of schools, "two dollars out of every hundred hereafter to be received in the treasury of the State." If such an act were now in force the State appropriation for schools would amount to over \$25,000,000 instead of \$1,000,000. The idea of a twenty-five million dollar State appropriation for schools in Illinois almost takes the breath away; and to propose anything like that sum would stamp one as visionary. And yet New Jersey, with a school expenditure of considerably less than one-half that of Illinois, makes a State appropriation of over \$10,000,000.

That the amount now contributed by the State of Illinois to the support of her common schools is small in comparison with the appropriation of some of the other states will be seen by a glance at the following statement showing the relative amounts appropriated by some of the more populous states.

State.	Population in 1907.	Total expenditure for schools.	Amount of State appropriation for support of schools.	Percent of State appropriation.
New Jersey.....	2,248,332	\$14,951,775 24	\$10,097,408 92	68
Pennsylvania.....	7,082,915	34,070,916 94	7,500,000 00	22
California.....	1,675,211	12,500,000 00*	6,000,000 00	54
New York.....	8,386,673	53,000,000 00	5,636,000 00	11
Kentucky.....	2,348,852	3,870,046 00	2,661,867 20	69
Wisconsin.....	2,252,911	12,505,000 00	2,656,897 00	21
Indiana.....	2,743,805	12,879,016 57	2,612,188 82	20
Washington.....	680,712	8,000,000 00	2,211,068 55	28
Minnesota.....	2,071,318	13,463,211 00	2,000,000 00	15
Maryland.....	1,290,000	3,400,000 00	1,415,351 25	41
Mississippi.....	1,734,439	3,250,000 00	1,250,000 00	38
West Virginia.....	1,096,006	4,271,153 00	1,067,788 25	25
Illinois.....	5,518,190	32,227,605 06	1,000,000 00	3

*Estimated.

From this statement it will be seen that twelve of the states, some of them having less than one-fifth of the population, make larger appropriations for the support of schools, both absolutely and relatively to the total school expenditures, than Illinois. In more than half of them the State appropriation is more than one-fourth of the total amount expended for schools. At a joint meeting of the Educational Commissions of Illinois, Pennsylvania, Iowa, Kansas and Washington, held in Cleveland, Ohio, on July 2, 1908, it was moved and carried "that it be the sense of the members of these state commissions that not less than one-fourth of the cost of maintaining the schools of a state should come from the State treasury; and that, when the larger corporations of a state can not be taxed by the school districts, but pay state taxes only, not less than one-half the expense of maintaining the schools of the State should come from the State treasury or the State school funds." One-fourth the expense of school maintenance in this State would be \$8,056,901.27. We see how far below this standard is Illinois with only a three per cent appropriation.

This appropriation, of course, since practice has made it a fixed amount, grows relatively smaller year by year as the total expenditures for school purposes increase. The school reports of the State show that in 1859 the amount derived from the two mill tax was \$763,231; that the amount raised by district tax for school purposes was \$1,201,895, and that the entire amount expended for all school purposes was \$2,171,495. A little calculation will show that at that time, that is fifty years ago, the State appropriation for school purposes was $62\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the amount raised by local taxation, and 34 per cent of the entire expenditure for schools. Today, as was shown, it is less than three per cent of the total expenditures and only 4.3 per cent of the amount received from district taxes. Surely this condition could not be defended by anyone who really believes in the principle of a State appropriation for the support of schools.

What is this principle to which reference has just been made? Why should the State appropriate any amount for school purposes? Why should not the entire expenses of schools be borne by the districts? The

answer to these questions is involved in the very idea of the State. A democratic State implies a body of people sufficiently homogeneous with respect to customs, conditions, interests and needs, to undertake to provide for these needs through common effort, that is, through the State government. It further implies that the interests and needs of the people is affected by that of some of the people. It is, therefore, a denial of the right of any community to adopt the policy of "go as you please" in any matter of general interest. Education is a matter of general interest; consequently the principle applies with peculiar force to the care and education of the children of the State. The welfare of the State shall receive at least a common school education. This principle is recognized in the Constitution of Illinois, as has already been pointed out, for it declares that "the General Assembly shall provide a thorough and efficient system of free schools, whereby all children of this State may receive a good common school education."

Now it is impossible for some localities of the State, without outside assistance, to provide such a system of schools and give to the children of those localities the kind of education demanded by the Constitution. Last year there were 253 districts in the State which, after levying the full rate of taxation permitted by law, could not support a school for the term required by law. With respect to these districts it is plainly the duty of the State to provide them with the assistance necessary to enable them to conform to the State's requirements. It is a duty which the State owes primarily to itself. These districts, however, represent an extreme variation from a "thorough and efficient system of free schools." Many others fall short of it. It, therefore, is necessary for the State to make a large appropriation for the purpose of equalizing the school privileges of the State, and for the purpose of stimulating all sections of the State to greater efforts towards improving their schools. The same joint meeting of educational commissions previously referred to resolved "that the State should encourage high standards of efficiency in all grades of public schools by granting special aid to all rural, graded and high schools which reach certain standards in equipment and teaching force."

SUBJECTS NOT THOROUGHLY INVESTIGATED BY THE COMMISSION.

There are, of course, many subjects of great educational importance which the commission has not had time to investigate and upon which it can make no recommendation. Chief among these, perhaps, is the subject of industrial and vocational training.

It is felt throughout the country that the schools of today are not properly adjusted to the industrial conditions which prevail. The feeling has found expression in a variety of ways—in a flood of literature on industrial education, in the formation of societies to promote instruction in the industrial arts, in the appointment of commissions to investigate the subject of industrial education, and, in a few states, in legislation providing for the teaching of agriculture and the domestic arts in the public schools and for the establishment of separate trade schools.

It is true that the modern school too often reflects the scholastic ideals which prevailed a century or more ago. Since the industrial revolution of the latter part of the eighteenth century economic conditions have changed more rapidly than the various forms and methods of education. We now see quite clearly that the education which was fairly well adapted to the ideals and purposes of a leisure class is not suited to the aims and purposes of a democracy. The kind of education needed in a free state is that which considers on the one hand the socially necessary labor to be performed in forests and mines, fields and factories, offices and studios, and on the other hand the existence in the minds and bodies of the youth of the State of special individual aptitudes for the performance of this labor, which aptitudes it should be the business of the schools to discover and develop. The children of the State are potentially farmers, merchants, mechanics, engineers, artists, professional men, etc. Perhaps the greatest educational question of modern times is, how may the public school system be organized and the schools conducted so as to aid in the discovery of the special talents of the youth of the land, develop these talents in the highest degree possible and turn them to social account. This is, of course, largely a school question, it is one which is engaging increasing attention on the part of those who are striving to improve the efficiency of the schools. The commission regrets exceedingly that it has been obliged by the amount of its appropriation and for want of time to forego the investigation of a question which in importance and present interest stands in the front rank.

Among the states which have attempted a solution of this problem through legislation are Massachusetts, New York and Wisconsin.

Wisconsin provides for the teaching of elementary agriculture in every district school, and for the establishment and maintenance of county schools of agriculture and domestic economy. It also empowers cities to establish and maintain trade schools. New York has organized under its education department a special division of trade schools which takes up the organization of factory and trade schools with local school authorities, commercial or labor organizations, or any citizen who may be interested. Such schools when organized become a part of the general school system, and subject to the same management, but the work is not to be mingled and confused with the work of other schools. When the requirements of the education department as to rooms, equipment and qualifications of teachers are complied with, a factory or trade school receives from the State an allotment of \$500.00 and an additional \$200.00 for each teacher employed after the first one. Massachusetts is proceeding under the direction of a commission on industrial education, appointed in 1906. This commission is authorized not merely to investigate the subject of industrial education but to establish, conduct and maintain industrial schools. Several of such schools have been established. The commission was created to serve for a period of three years. This time was extended in 1908 to five years. For the years 1906, 1907, 1908 and 1909 the State has appropriated for the use of this commission the sum of \$100,323.41. New Jersey has appointed a commission to investigate the subject of industrial education and make a report to the next Legislature, and the same has been done in Maryland. Other states which have taken some steps towards the introduction of industrial education are Alabama, Connecticut, Georgia, Virginia, Arkansas, Mississippi and Oklahoma. The constitution of Oklahoma contains provisions which are meant to create a definite and harmonious system of agricultural and industrial education for that State. With this object in view it enjoins the teaching of the elementary principles of agriculture, horticulture, animal husbandry, stock feeding, forestry, the building of country roads, domestic science and the elements of economics in all the public schools of the State.

The question of the best method of procedure in providing for industrial education in the public schools is regarded by the commission as an extremely important one, but at the same time an extremely difficult one. The commission makes no recommendation upon the subject for the reason that it has not had time to enter upon that kind of investigation which would be necessary to insure wise suggestions in regard to legislation. The commission regards the whole question of industrial and vocational training as in such a nebulous condition that it does not feel that any definite recommendation concerning it as it applies to the public schools of the State can be made without a painstaking and thorough investigation of the whole subject. The time at the disposal of the commission has not been sufficient to enable it to make the investigation necessary for such a report as would be required as the basis of definite recommendations. The commission is, therefore, of the opinion, and re-

spectfully recommends in view of the importance of the subject, that a committee consisting of suitable persons be appointed and authorized by the State to visit the industrial schools of this country and other countries for the purpose of studying the subject of industrial and vocational training in all its phases in order to present a report upon it to the General Assembly.

The subject of industrial and vocational training is not the only one, the investigation of which was impossible owing to the limited time at the disposal of the commission. Questions like the following are frequently asked: Why have you not taken up the text book question? Why have you made no recommendation concerning temperance legislation? Why have you had nothing to say about moral instruction in the schools? Why do you not recommend a law concerning school fraternities? To all such questions the commission makes the following reply: "We agree with you that the subject you urge upon us is important. It deserves consideration, but we have laid down the rule that a thorough investigation must precede the formation of every recommendation made by the commission. It is better to make no recommendation at all than to make one not sustained by facts or warranted by experience. The subject mentioned is one concerning which the commission has not had sufficient time to ascertain the facts or to study the experience. We have done the best we could with a few fundamentally important subjects. We have considered a few questions thoroughly. We have no misgivings about the recommendations we have made concerning them. With more time we should have considered other subjects. An entire year would not be too much to devote to some of them. The Massachusetts commission will spend at least five years on the subject of industrial education alone. The text book question is a difficult question. Practically all of the states have had more or less experience with text book laws. A thorough study of these laws and this experience should precede a recommendation concerning a text book law for Illinois. So far as the commission is concerned, at least, such an investigation must precede any recommendation concerning it, and so with a multitude of other questions.

Among these questions which the commission would like to have considered had time permitted are the following: Industrial and vocational training in their relation to the public schools, the means and methods of promoting the physical welfare of school children, vacation schools and playgrounds, the teaching of agriculture, household economics and domestic science in the public schools, the consolidation of country schools, the improvement of the law in relation to township high schools, the text book question, school revenues, the requirements for admission to colleges and the granting of degrees, the kind of school statistics which it is most profitable to collect, the compensation of township treasurers and the auditing of their reports, a minimum wage law for teachers, county normal schools and teachers' training classes, city school systems, religious and temperance instruction in the schools, and many others.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT.

RECEIPTS.		
Appropriation for use of the Educational Commission		\$10,000 00
EXPENDITURES.		
F. G. Blair, traveling and incidental expenses	\$ 175 70	
R. E. Hieronymus, traveling and incidental expenses	207 59	
Alfred Baylis, traveling and incidental expenses	231 82	
Edwin G. Cooley, traveling and incidental expenses	25 80	
A. F. Nightingale, traveling and incidental expenses	202 97	
Harry Taylor, traveling and incidental expenses	292 77	
Francis Cassilly, traveling and incidental expenses	10 48	
Woods Howerth, traveling and incidental expenses	845 95	
Woods Howerth, salary as secretary	5,589 05	
Rose Crump, salary as stenographer	1,165 00	
Donald L. Morrill, legal advice	317 85	
L. E. Wheeler, P. M., for stamps	645 00	
Underwood Typewriter Co.	28 00	
Central Union Telephone Co.	2 50	
Clerical work	26 24	
Labor	20 00	
Printing	66 00	
Expressage	141 97	
Total	\$10,000 00	

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